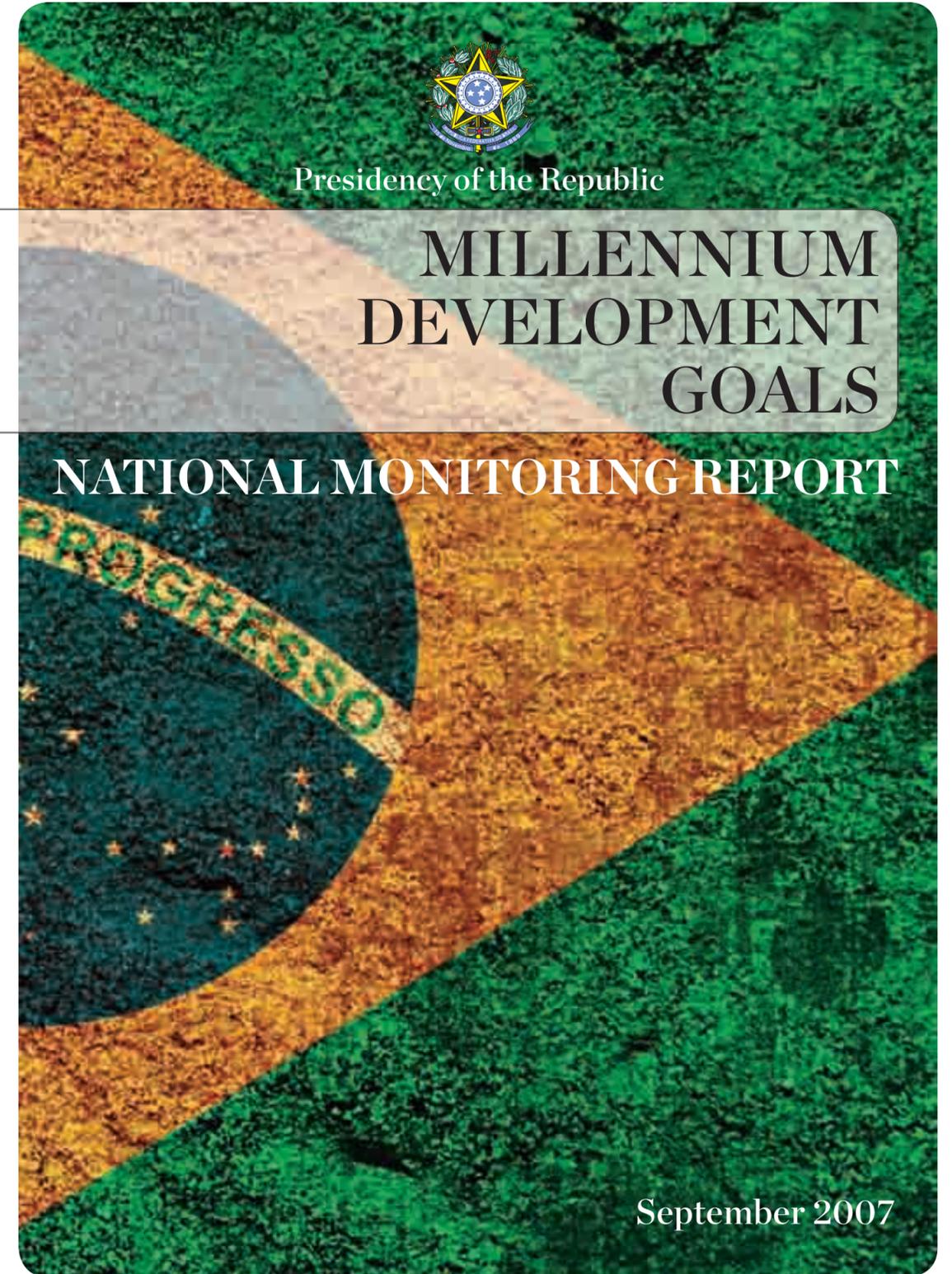




SEPTEMBER 2007



Presidency of the Republic

# MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

## NATIONAL MONITORING REPORT

September 2007



Ministry of Long-term Planning of the Presidency

Ministry of Planning, Budget and Management

Ministry of Civil Affairs of the Presidency of the Republic



MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS • NATIONAL MONITORING REPORT



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# FOREWORD

It is with great pleasure that I introduce the third National Monitoring Report on the Millennium Development Goals – MDGs. The data and diagnosis of this third Report make it clear that there has been significant improvement in the living conditions of our population – which once again bears out Brazil’s engagement towards fulfilling the Millennium Declaration, an international pact for the elimination of poverty established by the heads of 189 countries in September 2000.

On the occasion, the United Nations Organization outlined eight Millennium Development Goals to be achieved by 2015 through initiatives aimed at fighting poverty and hunger, promoting education, gender equality, and health, sanitation, housing and environment policies. In order to achieve such goals, the UN presented a set of 18 targets, to be monitored through 48 indicators that embody what is possible to implement, measure and compare worldwide.

Our third Report updates the information that began to be collected systematically as of September 2004, when the first National Report was launched. One year later, in September 2005, the second Report was released, with significant inno-

ventions: attention was drawn to human rights protection, an intrinsic element for the achievement of the MDGs; new goals were set up and/or adapted, with a view to tailoring UN targets to Brazilian reality; and several new indicators were included, in addition to those originally proposed by the UN.

While in the 2005 foreword I wrote that “Brazil has learned to grow, but has not yet learned to share”, I am happy to find, in the third Report, that our reality has changed for the better. Poverty and extreme poverty continue on a downward trend, but they are now coupled with a new phenomenon: a reasonable reduction in a still high inequality gap between rich and poor. Cash transfer programs, such as the Bolsa Família, have played a key role in the process of economic and social empowerment of the less privileged segment of the Brazilian population.

In the education area, the indicators show continuous progress towards universal completion of basic education, which requires permanent efforts not only to ensure that children are in school, but that they will stay in school until they satisfactorily complete the first nine years of schooling. With the Plan for Development of Education – PDE, we hope to achieve this additional target of ensuring access to quality basic schooling for all Brazilians.

Regarding gender equality, women’s participation in the educational system in Brazil is proportionally higher than men’s. Here, discrimination against women occurs mainly through adverse conditions in the labor market, high levels of domestic violence, and little political participation.

As to the drop in child mortality rates, the data indicate that Brazil is also on track to achieve the established target, namely, to reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the mortality rate of children under five years of age.

Statistics show that the maternal mortality rate fell 12.7% between 1997 and 2005. But we know that the country still faces some degree of underreporting of maternal mortality and needs to improve the identification of causes of deaths among women. To this end, the number of Maternal Mortality Committees, which identify causes of death, increased by 92% between 2001 and 2005. The expansion of the Family Health Program (PSF) and the incentive provided to municipalities for the expansion of prenatal care have increased the number of pregnant women who seek specialized care.

The number of Brazilians infected with HIV remained steady between 2000 and 2004. AIDS continues to advance among 40 to 49 year-old women, mainly due to heterosexual trans-



mission, but incidence among youths has declined. There has also been a significant reduction among needle drug users, from 20.2% of the total reported in 1998 to 9.4% in 2004. The mortality rate from AIDS has decreased since 1996, when access to free-of-charge antiretroviral treatment was extended to cover the entire population. The initiative developed by the Brazilian Government, through the National Program of Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs) and AIDS, is internationally acknowledged as a successful project in fighting the disease.

Brazil has also taken important steps to ensure environmental sustainability, to conserve biodiversity and to reverse the loss of natural resources, such as a remarkable increase in the number and area of conservation units, and the adoption of an environmentally clean energy matrix, in which 45% of the sources are renewable. We have managed to reduce, year by year, the deforestation of the Amazon rainforest. Just between August 2005 and July 2006 there was a 25% reduction in the pace of deforestation.

The Report reveals that, in spite of an increase in the Brazilian population's access to adequate basic sanitation and housing, two of the main challenges facing Brazil in the fulfillment of all targets envisioned in the eight Millennium Development Goals refer to sewer collection and treatment and reduction of the number of people living in substandard settlements. The Government intends to guarantee the achievement of these targets through massive investment: R\$ 40 billion (nearly US\$ 21 billion) in basic sanitation and R\$ 106 billion (almost US\$ 56 billion) in slum upgrading by 2010, as provided for in the Growth Acceleration Program – PAC, launched by the Federal Government in the beginning of this year.

The third National Report shows that Brazil is on track to achieve, in 2015, all the targets set up by the UN. Some of them have already been achieved, such as cutting by half between 1990 and 2015, extreme poverty and hunger. It is for no other reason that in 2005 the Government pledged to expand the first two targets, determining the reduction of extreme poverty to one quarter of that observed in 1990, measured through the methodology defined by the UN itself (Purchasing Power Parity dollar, or PPP dollar), and the elimination of hunger, measured through nutrition criteria.

Possibly as significant as the progress in achieving the targets proposed by the Country are the initiatives that Brazil has been supporting, with a view to helping other nations of less relative development to achieve the MDGs as well. Thus, the eighth goal, which proposes the establishment of a global partnership for development, encompasses a series of initiatives that the Brazilian government has supported, toward a less unequal

world, where the inhabitants of all nations, of all continents, have minimum conditions to live with dignity. Such initiatives include structural measures, such as firm advocacy of a more open and balanced foreign trade, and others that are more direct, such as roughly 200 international technical cooperation projects financed by Brazil.

The Brazilian government has strongly supported the efforts to eliminate hunger and extreme poverty that still prevail in the world. Although this Administration is aware that the Millennium Development Goals do not replace the commitments undertaken by all nations during the United Nations Cycle of Conferences in the 1990's, it considers that this UN's pro-development strategy is an appropriate forum to introduce important international demands, such as the need for less instability in the international financial system, reduced trade protectionism by the developed nations, as well as a substantial increase of Official Development Aid – ODA and international technical cooperation.

Before concluding, I would like to point out that this Report introduces important innovations. First, it contains a description of the main initiatives of the Federal Government that lead to constant and positive evolution of the living conditions of the Brazilian population, and thus to the fulfillment of the country's commitments with the MDGs. This description, with the main results of these initiatives in the years of 2005 and 2006, are described in a CD ROM attached to the printed text. Moreover, the Report emphasizes the importance of social participation and control for the achievement of the MDGs' targets. The current Brazilian experience of social participation in State activities places Brazil in the spotlight, due to its continental dimension, the amount of people involved in participatory processes, and the expansion of public spaces shared by government and society. Finally, this Report also deepens the debate on the MDGs and Human Rights initiated in the previous Report, underlining their complementary nature. The issues addressed by the MDGs encompass a significant share of Human Rights, which governments also pledged to uphold when they signed the Millennium Declaration.

I would like to conclude by quoting James Grant, former Executive Director of the United Nations Children's Fund - Unicef: "The problem is not that we have tried to eradicate global poverty and failed; the problem is that no serious and concerted attempt has ever been made". I believe this is the time to make it.

**Luiz Inácio Lula da Silva**

President of the Federative Republic of Brazil



# INTRODUCTION

In 2000, while 191 Heads of State were agreeing upon the Millennium Declaration, it was impossible to predict the dimension this commitment would take in the years to come.

We already knew that this Declaration was the greatest international consensus in the history of development cooperation. We also knew that it represented a unique opportunity for progress and international dialogue, both at national and international levels.

We had estimated that by reaching the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in 2015, some 500 million people would be pulled out of extreme poverty, over 300 million would no longer suffer from hunger and 30 million children would be prevented from dying before the age of five. We were already convinced that the lives reflected in these figures were enough reason to justify the MDGs.

Halfway of the 15-year target to reach the MDGs, time has come to evaluate to which extent the actions and programmes that have been developed across the world have actually improved peoples' lives.

Global results demonstrate that, despite important achievements, great challenges await us. Above all, they confirm that in the path for human development, we can never be satisfied with national averages.

It is now clear that the fulfillment of the MDGs will only be effective if we manage to reduce inequalities among countries, regions, women and men; black, white and indigenous; the rich and the poor.

This belief is shared by Brazilians from the most different sectors. In fact, while Brazil has made important progresses in the accomplishment of the MDGs, its main challenge is to ensure that the different goals and targets will be met in all regions and for all social groups.

As the present Report confirms, Brazil has already reached the Poverty Reduction goal established by the UN and is about to

universalize children's access to primary school. At the present pace, the country should succeed in meeting the majority of the MDG targets.

There are good reasons to be optimistic. Income inequality has been steadily falling since 1995 and it has reached its lowest level in the last 25 years. We can also celebrate the reduction of gender inequality: there are now more girls than boys in school and, according to the National Household Survey (PNAD), the wage differential between men and women performing the same jobs has been decreasing, although the gap is still significant.

There were also advances in the national efforts to address racial disparities. PNAD figures quoted in this Report reveal that the difference of school attendance between black and white children fell from 12.2% in 1992 to less than 2% in 2005.

A considerable part of the reduction in inequalities is a consequence of Government's large scale social programs. *The Family Grant* (Bolsa Família) is the world's largest cash transfer programme, consolidating a series of fragmented initiatives in different sectors such as health, education, fight against hunger and social development, into one unique programme focused on the poorest groups. Now, that the *Family Grant* Programme has proven to be effective in reducing inequalities, it is possible to take a step forward to improve its focus and adaptation to different poverty realities.

Nevertheless, sex, color, ethnic background and place of birth are still major factors in the definition of future opportunities for a Brazilian child. It is beyond doubt that Brazil's biggest challenge in the next few years is to transform the MDGs into a reality for all. As stated in this National Report, 7.5 million people live in extreme poverty within the country. Besides, many children – mostly black and indigenous – remain out of primary school. Going beyond national averages is an imperative for all countries committed to reach the MDGs and transform them into an instrument to combat all sorts of inequalities.

In some areas, the Federal Government has already assumed more ambitious targets than the MDGs. Brazil has pledged to decrease extreme poverty to a quarter, instead of halving the

population living with less than one dollar a day, as demanded the MDG target. Likewise, it committed itself to eradicate hunger by 2015, while the target was to reduce it by 50%. The more rigorous self-imposed targets reveal the dimensions and complexities of a country such as Brazil, which also plays a leading role in the international community towards the construction of a more equitable multilateral system.

We should also emphasize Brazil's role in the South-South cooperation, as well as its efforts to establish innovative global alliances for development in commercial and financial forums, in line with the eighth Millennium Goal.

The Brazilian Civil Society and Private Sector have also positioned themselves as vital forces for the fulfillment of the MDGs and the reduction of inequalities. It is unquestionable that the MDGs will only be reached with their full involvement and commitment.

To develop targeted policies focused on the most vulnerable groups and regions will be crucial for the achievement of the MDGs in the next eight years. In particular, for the most sensitive targets such as improving sanitation. The historical inequalities that are still deeply rooted in the country will need additional and sustained efforts to be overcome.

This National Report is undoubtedly a valuable instrument in this process. By providing essential monitoring tools and disaggregated data, it facilitates policy making and enables all actors to take an active role in the development endeavors.

The United Nations System is very enthusiastic at the opportunity to continue supporting the efforts of the Brazilian society through its technical expertise and global knowledge networks. Because it is here - far from international commissions and conferences - that the value of MDGs and the importance of their fulfillment becomes unquestionable.

### Kim Bolduc

Resident Coordinator  
United Nations System in Brazil



# THE MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS



AND  
HUMAN RIGHTS:  
A COMMON AGENDA

# PROGRESS IN THE MILLENNIUM GOALS HELPS GUARANTEE ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND CULTURAL RIGHTS

Human rights are an indivisible and interdependent set of several universal rights: civil, cultural, economic, political, and social rights. Since the end of the Cold War, increased attention is conferred to economic, social and cultural rights and their links with the right to development.

The United Nations Declaration on the Right to Development<sup>1</sup> considers the human being as the focal point of all development processes. That is, the individual must be the main participant, and also beneficiary, of development policies. In this sense, human dignity is a motivation shared by human rights and by development, because their highest goals are connected.

As it upholds other values, the human rights agenda expands development demands by advocating education, health and nourishment as *rights* rather than privileges or mere needs. Moreover, the guarantee of human rights provides the legal framework to improve public policies, since it creates a set of approaches to policies and programs, so as to help countries reach higher levels of development.

The normative structure of human rights is important for public policies at various stages, for example, in policy design, through incentives to participation (and empowerment); in implementation, by emphasizing equality and special attention to the most vulnerable individuals, as well as by a conceptual change, whereby rights are being fulfilled, rather than favors or privileges being granted; and in monitoring, through the current understanding of monitoring of human rights, which includes the notion of human rights indicators.

The Millennium Declaration was approved in 2000. It is a political commitment that synthesizes several of the important world conferences held in the 1990's, integrates global development priorities and defines targets to be attained by 2015. The document included basic human rights topics in the international agenda of priorities under the perspective of development, especially economic, social and cultural rights. The declaration emphasizes, for example, the need to guarantee the rights to basic education, gender equality, child, sexual and reproductive health and policies to control HIV/Aids globally.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) favor a perspective of monitoring advances, of targets and priorities to be met, while the human rights perspective is broader – it addresses both intermediate and comprehensive targets related to the strengthening of rights, thus fully encompassing human dignity.

In practice, however, the priorities of the Millennium Declaration and the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) reinforce each other. One may claim that their approaches are compatible and complementary<sup>2</sup>. The UNDP 2003 Human Development Report claims that the MDGs not only “mirror the basic motivation for human rights”, but also, through their development targets, “reflect a human rights agenda– right

to food, education, health and decent standard of living”.<sup>3</sup>

Several of the targets envisioned in the Millennium Development Goals are commitments acknowledged in various international treaties on human rights, both global and regional. They are also recognized in the Constitutions of many countries.

The purpose of the MDGs is to prioritize some issues that are still a daily challenge to many people in the world, such as extreme poverty and hunger, access to quality education, gender equality, improvement of maternal health, fighting HIV/Aids and other diseases, environmental preservation and consolidation of the right to development for all. These rights are also economic, social and cultural, that is, they are an important part of human rights as a whole. And they are rights to which governments are committed once more by signing the Millennium Declaration.

In Brazil, there is a growing recognition that the success of the MDGs, by translating principles upheld by the international community into concrete targets, renders greater achievements and can be reproduced in specific areas of human rights – not competing with the MDGs, but complementing them.

### Human rights and the fight against poverty

Poverty, hunger and malnutrition go against human dignity. For small children, lack of food can undermine physical and mental development and even threaten their survival. These types of problems violate article 11 of the ICESCR, which establishes that all people have the right to an adequate standard of living for themselves and their family, including decent food, clothing, housing and the guarantee that there will be a continuous improvement of these conditions.

As a first step to ensure the right to adequate standard of living for all, the MDGs

established targets to cut by half, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people living on is less than 1 PPP dollar, and the proportion of people that suffers from hunger.

Poverty and hunger are inserted in the terms of economic, social and cultural rights, which means that several international documents establish basic guarantees to prevent these problems<sup>4</sup>. The core content of the right to adequate food implies food availability, in sufficient quantity and quality to meet the dietary needs of individuals. This nutritional menu must be free and acceptable within the individual’s culture, as well as accessible in a sustainable manner.

The human rights and development approaches are connected in order to strengthen the emphasis on the elimination of extreme poverty and malnutrition. The core content of these rights is equivalent to the priorities established in the Millennium Declaration, where it addresses the issue of development and poverty eradication. The countries that have signed the Declaration pledged to spare no effort to “free our fellow men, women and children from the abject and dehumanizing conditions of extreme poverty, to which more than a billion of them are currently subjected”, and resolving to “create an environment – at the national and global levels alike - which is conducive to development and to the elimination of poverty”.

### MDGs and economic, social and cultural rights covenant guarantee primary education

Education is part of human development and is protected by several international treaties, such as article 13 of the ICESCR, in which the Member States acknowledge everyone’s right to education. This text states that education must be aimed at the full development of human personality and human dignity, as well as the strengthening of the respect for human rights and basic freedoms. In the document, signatory nations agree that education must enable everyone to participate

*Human rights agenda increases development demands by protecting social advances as rights, not privileges*

in a free society, lead to understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations and all racial, ethnic or religious groups and promote the activities of the United Nations towards peace.

Therefore, the ICESCR imposes obligations that must be gradually fulfilled by the countries, that is, it makes it clear to States that they need to implement concrete measures to improve the protection of the right to education.

Expanding access to education is also part of the Millennium Declaration. One of the targets is precisely to guarantee that by 2015 all children, boys and girls, complete primary education. By setting this target, it became easier for society to monitor countries' efforts to design and implement policies targeted at the organization and maintenance of a public system of education capable of ensuring everyone's access to public schools, including children and youths.

The emphasis on the primary level, explicit in the MDGs, also appears in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in article 13 of the ICESCR. The latter considers it a priority to make primary education compulsory and accessible to all, in such a way that, in this human right, the minimum to be expected is the completion of basic schooling.

### Millennium Declaration echoes advances of conferences on gender equality

Gender equality is a universal legal principle recognized in various international texts on human rights, among which the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, approved by the UN General Assembly in December 1979. Some UN World Conferences on Women have also introduced important advances in this area, such as of the ones held in Nairobi (Kenya), in 1985, and Beijing (China), in 1995.

Gender equality is also dealt with in article 3 of the ICESCR, which emphasizes

the commitment of Member States "to ensure the equal right of men and women to the enjoyment of all economic, social and cultural rights".

The quest for effective gender equality is also highlighted in the Millennium Declaration, which seeks the commitment of Member States "to promote gender equality and the empowerment of women as effective ways to fight poverty, hunger and to stimulate development that is truly sustainable". This is reflected in the MDGs, which establish as one of their targets to eliminate the inequalities between boys and girls in basic and secondary education, if possible by 2005, and at all education levels, by 2015.

Gender equality is a requirement for democracy and the fulfillment of basic rights. However, despite advances in legislation and public policies in many countries, there are still inequalities that need to be eradicated, mainly in the areas of professional education, economic activity, employment and working conditions.

### The Millennium Declaration and the right to health

The MDGs directly associated with health, whose targets are to reduce child mortality by two thirds (MDG 4) and maternal mortality by three quarters (MDG 5) and to begin to reverse the spread of HIV/Aids and other diseases (MDG 6), are all linked to the right to have the best standard of physical and mental health.

The right to health is contemplated in several national Constitutions and acknowledged in many international treaties on human rights<sup>5</sup>. In the 1990's, health was a priority theme in international conferences and agreements for development: World Summit for Children (1990), International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994), World Summit on Social Development (Copenhagen, 1995), World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995), and ultimately, the Millennium Declaration.

*With the education targets established in the MDGs, it is easier for society to oversee the fulfillment of the right to education*

The contemporary concept of the right to health<sup>6</sup>, considered an inclusive right, is broad, since it encompasses health care and related themes, such as access to drinking water and basic sanitation, healthy conditions of occupation of the environment, health-related education and information, including sexual and reproductive health. This concept also includes the freedom to control one's own health (highlighting non-submission to treatments and medical experiments without prior consent) and the right to a health protection system with equal opportunities<sup>7</sup>. This concept influenced the Millennium Goals: recently, the inclusion of new health-related targets was proposed, particularly related to reproductive health<sup>8</sup>.

The human rights-based approach, however, takes a step further: it has a special focus on vulnerable groups and individuals, emphasizing that improvement in health indicators can disguise poor health conditions of specific groups. Thus, from a human rights perspective, a disaggregated analysis of all relevant indicators is necessary in order to verify the differences in the health conditions of these groups.

In any way, the analysis of the contents of the right to health, both from the perspective of the MDGs and from the human rights perspective, shows that they are aligned and reinforce each other towards the final goal, which is the full enjoyment of the right to health for all people.

### Millennium Goals bring together development and environmental conservation

Development cannot be conceived without considering its impact on the environment and the quality of life of human beings. As early as 1972, the Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment admonished that the human environment, whether natural or man-made, is essential for the well-being and enjoyment of basic rights – such as the right to life.

Sustainable development is based on the recognition that the environment plays a key role in the supply of material and environmental bases, of the ecosystem and of the energy on which our economic processes rely. All of these are envisaged in the seventh Millennium Goal.

Also in this case, the connection with basic rights is quite strong. Human rights are a precondition for sustainable development, and the protection of the environment is an essential requirement for the effective promotion of human rights. Thus, human rights and the environment are related to development: both are so interdependent and interrelated that often environmental degradation and poverty are at the same time the cause and the effect of socio-environmental problems.

Other priorities established by MDG 7 are access to drinking water and basic sanitation, which are part of the right to a healthy environment. The two items are recognized in some documents as human rights per se.

### Millennium Declaration reinforces human right to development

The Millennium Declaration is a renewed global agreement that encourages developed countries to establish new patterns of behavior regarding the less developed countries. This international network can be formed through official development assistance, international cooperation agreements, debt pardoning and fairer trade rules, among other initiatives.

The eighth Millennium Goal (“Establish a global partnership for development”) is closely linked to the right to development. It relies above all on the capacity of developed countries to contribute to the development of poorer countries.

Recognized since the UN Declaration on the Right to Development, the right to development is related to the inalienable right to participate in, contribute

*Despite the general improvement in health indicators, there is a concern for vulnerable groups and individuals*

to and enjoy economic, social, cultural and political development. Thus, the States are deemed primarily responsible for creating national and international conditions for the achievement of this right. It is also the role of the State to design and implement policies to promote development, with a view to ensure all human rights and guaranteeing basic freedoms.

### Social participation and control are essential to achieve the MDGs

Participation, democracy and human rights are key elements of the Millennium Declaration, and the MDGs were established to materialize everyone's right to development.

In the Millennium Declaration, the view on development is based on cornerstone values for international relations in the twenty-first century. Among them is freedom, with a focus on participatory democracy as the best way to ensure human dignity:

“Men and women have the right to live their lives and raise their children in dignity, free from hunger and from the fear of violence, oppression or injustice. Democratic and participatory governance based on the will of the people best assures these rights”.<sup>9</sup>

The need to expand social participation in decisions that affect the lives of the population and increase society's civil freedoms and political freedoms was, in a way, incorporated by the Millennium Development Goals themselves. They reflect fundamental intentions emerging from several development conferences carried out by the UN in the 1990's. Therefore, they result from the dialogue among millions of people, including government and non-government representatives, who participated in the national, regional and international conferences.

The fulfillment of the MDGs contributes to progress in the area of human rights

– such as the right to food, education, health and a decent standard of living – and society's participation is a basic condition to achieve this. Universal access to education and health, for example, demands much more than official measures. Society needs to participate in the decisions, making sure that justice and equity are the guiding principles of public policies and preventing the increase of discrimination against vulnerable groups and the expansion of social exclusion.

### 1988 Constitution encouraged social participation

The current Brazilian experience of social participation in State activities places Brazil in a position of prominence, due to its continental size, number of people involved in the participatory processes, and expansion of public spaces shared by Government and society. Hundreds of civil society entities and social movements are represented through national councils, present in various areas of public action.

In Brazil, the fight for increased popular participation in public decisions started as a response to the military dictatorship, mainly in the 1970's, when popular movements organized themselves around urban demands, such as education, health, housing, water supply, electricity and transport. There was a demand for the creation of spaces through which organized civil society could channel its needs and influence public policy decisions.

This movement had a significant influence in the 1988 Constitution. It became known as “Citizen Constitution” precisely for the fact that, among other advances, it included in its text mechanisms for society's participation in federal and local decision-making.

As for the direct popular participation, the Constitution introduced mechanisms of referendum, plebiscite and popular initiative. In the area of participatory

*Participation of society helps guarantee that justice and equity will guide public policies*

democracy, it created the public policy management councils (at the municipal, state and federal levels), with the same level of representation for the State and civil society, to formulate policies related to health, children and adolescents, and social assistance.

These mechanisms turn participation into one of the articulating elements of public policies in Brazil, since the councils take on the role of institutional spaces for social manifestation. Their function, in general, is to propose and/or deliberate on a given policy or program.

Many of these councils also started to organize national conferences, broader spaces of participation, where representatives of the public authority and society can discuss and present proposals to strengthen and adjust specific public policies. Thus, social participation has become a means to define investment priorities and to guarantee society's control on the implementation of government programs and actions.

### Social dialogue influences policies in various areas

A priority of the Federal Government in the 2003-2006 period was to strengthen and create public spaces directed to the democratization of State institutions. The aim was to maintain and expand the dialogue with social movements and society organizations, besides giving voice to specific social groups interested in transforming the policy culture of the country. The idea was that these spaces, since they were designed to bring together civil society and government representatives to discuss public policies, would expand social control over state institutions, and would increase popular influence in the definition of governmental priorities.

The adoption of social dialogue as a government practice resulted in achievements in various areas, such as the negotiation between the Government and labor unions on adjustment of the minimum wage above the inflation rate. In a

similar fashion, strategic decisions for the future of Brazilian public education, such as the University for All Program (ProUni), the university reform proposal and the Fund for Maintenance and Development of Basic Education and Valorization of Education Professionals (Fundeb), had the participation of the main social movements linked to education – National Students Association (UNE), National Confederation of Education Workers (CNTE), Brazilian Association of Secondary Students (UBES) and National Association of Municipal Education Directors (UNDIME). The expansion of the National Program of Support to Family Farming (Pronaf) was influenced by the main rural social movements.

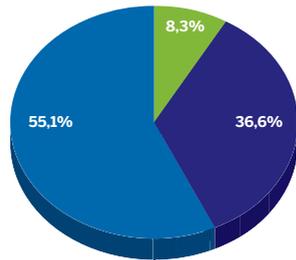
Other themes related to fundamental policies for the Brazilian population relied on the participation of social movements: the annual mobilization of the *Grito da Terra*, the Day for Water and Defense of Life, the events and conference organized by the Forum in Defense of Land Reform, the Forest Management Law, the National Plan for Water Resources, the National Plan for Promotion of Racial Equality, and the National Plan for Women's Policies.

The Federal Government also carried out public hearings on relevant themes, such as the Sustainable Amazon Plan (PAS), Sustainable BR-163 Plan, and the development of public policies for the areas of security, national integration and community radio broadcasting.

The Federal Government also maintains regular dialogue with civil society representatives to ensure discussion on the updating of the National Human Rights Program and the creation of a National Human Rights Council. In addition to discussions organized by the Federal Government, it holds hearings in partnership with the National Congress.

The cash transfer programs that benefit an expressive share of poor families (*Fome Zero* and *Bolsa Família*) have been

*Important decisions on themes such as land reform, education and minimum wage had the participation of social movements*

**GRAPH 1** • Share of representatives who participated in the national conferences

Public authority  
Civil society  
Others

Source: National Conferences Survey  
Preparation: General Secretariat of the Presidency of the Republic/National Secretariat of Social Integration

designed and are being implemented in partnership with hundreds of religious or non-religious social assistance entities.

### In four years, Brazil hosted 43 conferences on public policies

To increase the vitality of social dialogue in the federal public administration, the Government has concentrated its efforts in strengthening system of councils and in the organization of public policy conferences.

The organized segments of society have demonstrated great interest in participating in the debates on public policies. Between 2003 and 2006, 43 conferences – 38 national and five international – were held, mobilizing more than 2 million

people of civil society (including workers, entrepreneurs, representatives of organized civil society and professional entities) and of the municipal, state and federal public authorities. Fifteen of these events were held for the first time (see box 1).

In addition to the 38 national conferences carried out in the 2003-2006 period, there were at least 800 state conferences and thousands of municipal conferences. The themes addressed are considered crucial for progress in the achievement of social rights and have a strong connection with the Millennium Development Goals (see box 2).

Among the 48 thousand participants of the national phases of the conferences, more than half were civil society representatives (55.1%), little more than one third (36.6%) were government representatives and the remainder (8.3%) were observers from other echelons of the Republic and international organizations (see graph 1).

Of the civil society representatives in the national phase of the conferences, 38% were part of social movements; 24% of workers labor unions; 10% of business entities; 9% of non-government organizations; 4% of professional entities; and 15% were representatives of other types of civil society associations, such as neighborhood associations, business foundations, rights defense forums, and solidarity economics enterprises (see graph 2).

### More than 440 entities keep representatives in federal councils

The councils of rights and public policies are spaces for citizen participation in the State's decision-making process. In the state bureaucracy, they play a crucial role in presenting demands, expression and articulation of interests, processing society's proposals, integration and negotiation, policy monitoring and control, and, in many cases, deliberation. They incorporated, in addition to the social

## BOX 1 • Conferences held for the first time – 2003 to 2006

1. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on Cities
2. 1<sup>st</sup> National Children's and Youths' Conference on the Environment
3. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on the Rights of People with Disability
4. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on Public Policies for Youth
5. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on the Rights of Elderly People
6. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on Women's Policies
7. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on Promotion of Racial Equality
8. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on Aquiculture and Fishery
9. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on Sports
10. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on the Environment
11. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on Local Productive Arrangements
12. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on Professional and Technological Education
13. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on Indigenous Peoples
14. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on Solidarity Economics
15. 1<sup>st</sup> National Conference on Culture

movements, several other groups interested in discussing sectoral policies – experts, professional entities and private sector – creating a plural and rich space for expression.<sup>10</sup>

In the federal public administration, there are 35 councils that rely on the participation of people from civil society, members or non-members of social entities or movements<sup>11</sup>. According to recent studies, the participation of entities is very expressive. In the 35 councils there are 442 entities representing civil society segments, some of them present in more than one council, totaling 615 participations<sup>12</sup> (see box 3).

Of the 442 entities represented in national councils, 122 are non-governmental organizations, mainly working on the protection of social rights; 92 are entities that represent employers' and/or entrepreneurs' interests; 57 are linked to the advocacy of rural social movements and movements for environmental defense; and 55 are labor unions of urban workers. There are also 32 educational entities, 32 urban popular movements (linked to the fight for housing, dignity and support to recyclable waste collectors and solidarity economics), 17 are entities with a religious affiliation, 16 are defined as class entities or entities of freelance professionals, 9 are linked to culture and sports and 10 to other categories (see graph 3).

Thus, one can claim that the system of social participation in Brazil, epitomized mainly by the councils and conferences held in the various instances of the Federal Government, contributes to greater transparency, adequacy, outreach and effectiveness of the governmental decisions that affect the population.

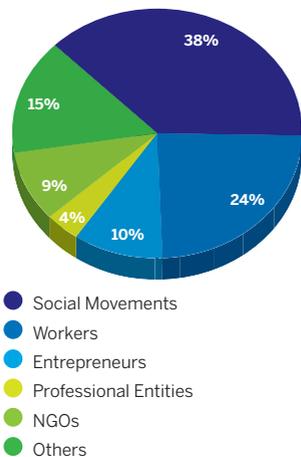
### Beyond the border, the country also strengthens social dialogue

The dialogue with civil society in international forums has broadened, ranging from trade negotiations in the World Trade Organization (WTO) to the strengthening

## BOX 2 · Themes addressed in the 38 National Conferences – 2003 to 2006

1. Drugs and pharmaceutical care
2. Cities and national urban development policy
3. Environment
4. Environment in education
5. Sports
6. Culture
7. Rights of people with disability
8. Rights of elderly people
9. Women's policies
10. Promotion of racial equality
11. Aquiculture and fishery
12. Water Infrastructure
13. Productive Clusters
14. Professional and technological education
15. Indigenous Peoples
16. Solidarity Economics
17. Primary Immuno-deficiencies
18. Land Reform
19. Access to health
20. Oral health
21. Labor and education management in health
22. Indigenous health
23. Science, technology and innovation in health
24. Workers' health
25. Science, technology and innovation
26. Human Rights
27. Rights of children and adolescents
28. Food security

**GRAPH 2 • Share of civil society in the conferences**



Source: SG-SNAS - National Conferences Survey  
Preparation: General Secretariat of the Presidency of the Republic/National Secretariat of Social Integration

**BOX 3**

**Participation in Councils**

Total of Ministries and Special Secretariats with councils with social participation

**23**

Total of councils with social participation

**35**

Total of civil society entities that participate in these councils

**442**

Number of participations of these entities in councils

**615**

Source: Survey in websites of federal public administration agencies and ministries, February 2007  
Preparation: General Secretariat of the Presidency of the Republic/National Secretariat of Social Integration

of regional integration in the Common Market of the South (Mercosur).

The inclusion of civil society in the dynamics of global negotiations represents the opening of a new space to sectors that were traditionally excluded from international agreements, such as family farming. In the 2nd International Conference on Land Reform and Rural Development, promoted by FAO, in Porto Alegre (RS), 50% of the Brazilian delegation comprised of leaders of social movements linked to land reform, environmental defense, food sovereignty and family farming.

Since South America holds a prominent position in the Brazilian foreign policy, relations with Latin American civil society prioritize the issue of “integration”. In pursuing greater citizen participation in strengthening the region, the Government, in partnership with the Economic-Social Advisory Forum of the Mercosur, has been promoting the Meetings with the Mercosur, a cycle of conferences aimed at engaging civil society organizations in the discussions on the theme. Since 2005, five of these meetings have been held, in Recife, Salvador, Belém, Belo Horizonte and Fortaleza. The Federal Government will continue to strengthen the concept of “Citizen Mercosur”, aiming at greater participation of civil society in the block.

Another major target vis-à-vis civil society, in Brazil and abroad, is to strengthen dialogue and participation around the promotion of human rights. The mobilization culminated in the 1st Inter-American Congress of Education in Human Rights, carried out in 2006, with the participation of approximately 650 people. The pillars of the National Plan of Education in Human Rights were discussed: basic education, higher education, security, justice, media and non-formal education. Together with the UN, the Government also initiated and is coordinating the partnership with the University for Peace (UPAZ), involving Brazilian uni-

versities, civil society entities and public managers.

The Federal Government contributed to the independent participation of several entities in the World Social Forum in Porto Alegre (RS), Mumbai (India), Caracas (Venezuela) and Nairobi (Kenya).

A milestone of the international dialogue pursued by the Federal Government was the inclusion of the social dimension in the calendar of the Brazil Year in France. In the French-Brazilian Forum of Civil Society, more than 200 social leaders discussed themes such as models of family farming, sustainable rural development, the social role of the city, solidarity economics, food security and new mechanisms to finance development. The Government’s contact with the academic world, labor unions and intellectual movements of various countries gained strength.

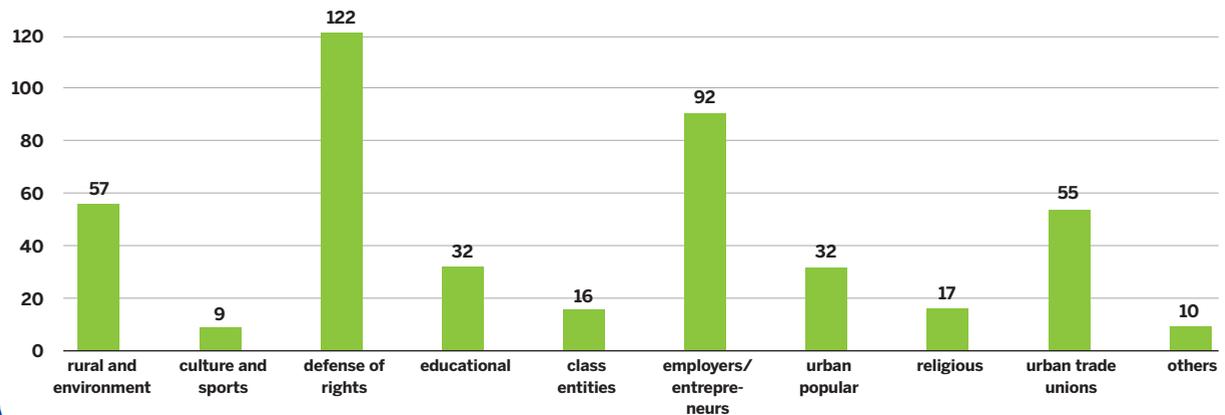
<sup>1</sup> Adopted by resolution 41/128 of the United Nations General Assembly, 4th December 1986.

<sup>2</sup> The National MDG Monitoring Report of 2005, in the chapter “The Millennium Development Goals and the Protection of Human Rights”, presents a box (p. 15) that links each Millennium Goal to the international standards on human rights.

<sup>3</sup> UNDP, “Human Development Report”, 2003, pages 27 and 29.

<sup>4</sup> The minimum commitments are established by General Comment number 3 and number 12 of the UN Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and also by the Declaration of the Limburg Principles. General Comment number 12 states, for example: “The right to adequate food is realized when every man, woman and child, alone or in community with others, has physical and economic access at all times to adequate food or means for its procurement. The right to adequate food shall therefore not be interpreted in a narrow or restrictive sense

GRAPH 3 • Categories represented by civil society entities that participate in national councils for public policies, February 2007



Source: Survey in websites of federal public administration agencies and ministries, February 2007  
Preparation: General Secretariat of the Presidency of the Republic/National Secretariat of Social Integration

which equates it with a minimum package of calories, proteins and other specific nutrients. The right to adequate food will have to be realized progressively. However, States have a core obligation to take the necessary action to mitigate and alleviate hunger as provided for in paragraph 2 of article 11, even in times of natural or other disasters”.

<sup>5</sup> One can quote the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, article 25 (1); the ICESCR article 12; the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, article 5 (e)(iv); the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (especially as regards women’s health), articles 11 (1)f, 12 and 14 (2)b; and the Convention on the Rights of Children, articles 3 (3), 17, 23, 25, 32 and 28. The theme is also addressed in regional treaties, such as the Protocol of San Salvador in the Inter-American System, article 10.

<sup>6</sup> Based on the 2003 document of the United Nations rapporteur for the Right to Health, Paul Hunt.

<sup>7</sup> The contemporary view of this right can also be subdivided according to the rights to maternal, child and reproductive health; natural environments and healthy working

spaces; prevention, treatment and control of diseases, access to essential drugs and drinking water. Attention should also be drawn to the principles of the human rights-based approach, such as universality and non-discrimination.

<sup>8</sup> In the report presented in 2006 to the General Assembly, “Report of the Secretary-General on the Work of the Organization”, the former Secretary General of the United Nations, Kofi Annan, proposed the inclusion of new targets, such as, for MDG 5, to achieve universal access to reproductive health by 2015, and, for MDG 6, to get as close as possible to universal access to HIV/aids treatment for all who need it by 2010.

<sup>9</sup> Millennium Declaration, page 2.

<sup>10</sup> JACCOUD, L. (org). *Questão Social e Políticas Sociais no Brasil Contemporâneo*. Brasília: Ipea, 2005

<sup>11</sup> Data from research carried out by the General Secretariat of the Presidency in February 2007.

<sup>12</sup> Some council members, even though affiliated to entities, do not represent them in some of the councils.



# ERADICATE EXTREME POVERTY AND HUNGER



# 1

## MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL

**TARGET 1** • REDUCE BY HALF, BETWEEN 1990 AND 2015, THE PROPORTION OF PEOPLE LIVING ON LESS THAN \$1 A DAY

**TARGET 1A (BRAZILIAN)** • REDUCE TO ONE QUARTER, BETWEEN 1990 AND 2015, THE PROPORTION OF PEOPLE LIVING ON LESS THAN \$1 A DAY

**TARGET 2** • REDUCE BY HALF, BETWEEN 1990 AND 2015, THE PROPORTION OF PEOPLE WHO SUFFER FROM HUNGER

**TARGET 2A (BRAZILIAN)** • ERADICATE HUNGER BETWEEN 1990 AND 2015

# BRAZIL HAS ALREADY ACHIEVED THE POVERTY REDUCTION GOAL ESTABLISHED BY THE UN

Brazil has already surpassed the target of reducing by half the proportion of people whose income is less than 1 PPP dollar per day<sup>1</sup>. While in 1990, 8.8% of Brazilians lived in extreme poverty, in 2005 the percentage fell to 4.2%, a result that goes beyond that established by the UN (see graph 1). In absolute terms, 4,7 million people evolved from a situation of extreme poverty between 1990 and 2005, even though around 7,5 million still earn a per capita household income lower than 1 PPP dollar a day (see graph 2).

The amount of 1 PPP dollar per day translated into approximately R\$ 40.00 per month in 2005. In Brazil, the parameter that has been used to determine extreme poverty is an income of one quarter of the minimum wage per capita per month, and to determine poverty, half a minimum wage per capita per month. In 2005, these earnings were equivalent to R\$ 89.60 and R\$ 179.21 respectively. Considering such levels, extreme poverty fell from 28% to 16% of the population between 1990 and 2005, while poverty dropped from 52%

to 38% in the same period.

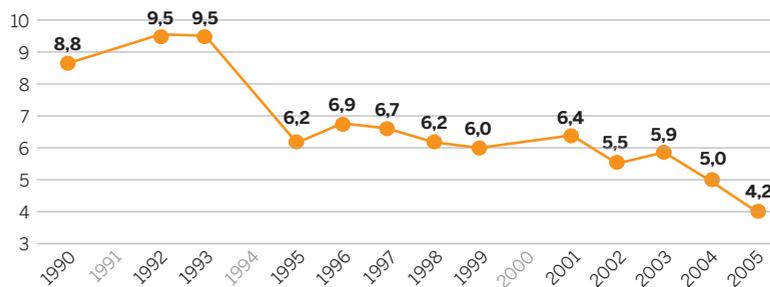
Therefore, it is possible to conclude that whichever value is used, extreme poverty rates follow a downward trend in Brazil.

The extreme poverty rate fell significantly due to the 1994 monetary stabilization – between 1993 and 1995, there was a fall of 3.3 percentage points (see graph 1). However, the monetary stabilization was an isolated event, unable to support this trend: after declining for four consecutive years, extreme poverty rose again in 2001 when the proportion of Brazilians living on less than 1 PPP dollar a day was higher than in 1995. Then it fell in 2002, and rose again in 2003.

However, in 2004 and 2005, the declining trend was resumed, due to – particularly – the policy of real increase of the minimum wage, which also had an impact on the value of social security benefits and the Continued Provision Benefit – a cash transfer program aimed at people with disabilities and the elderly. Another relevant factor for this reduction in poverty was the expansion of the *Bolsa Família* Program (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal). As a result of these initiatives, as of 2004 the income of families resumed growth, accompanied by reduced income inequality. This is an unprecedented phenomenon, since, historically, poverty has fallen in Brazil almost exclusively through increased average earnings, but without directly affecting the problem of income inequality.

Along recent years, the demographic transformations in the country have also been relevant to explain poverty reduction. According to estimates by the United Nations Population Fund (Unfpa), such changes would account for approximately one third of the poverty reduction observed between 1999 and 2005. The maintenance of this downward trend observed in recent years, however, continues to depend on increased income, strengthening of social policies, and reduction of inequalities, as

**GRAPH 1 • Evolution of extreme poverty in Brazil \***,  
1990 to 2005 (percentage of the population living with  
less than 1 PPP dollar a day)



\* Excluding the rural population of the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA and AP  
Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey

occurred in 2004 and 2005. If the current trend continues, between 2007 and 2008 the share of the population in extreme poverty will be 2.2%. This means that the more ambitious commitment taken on by Brazil in 2005, to reduce to one quarter the extreme poverty levels verified in 1990, is close to being achieved.

From the early 80's up to 2001, the Gini coefficient<sup>2</sup> was around 0.595, which maintained Brazil among the countries with the greatest levels of income inequality in the world. As of 2001, the index took on a steeper drop, and in 2005 it reached 0.566, the lowest level since it started to be measured with greater accuracy (see graph 3).

Other income inequality indicators show the same trend. The share of income in the hands of the poorest 20% increased from 2.3% in 1995 to 2.9% in 2005. The share held by the richest 20% fell from 64% in 1995 to 61% in 2005 (see graph 4).

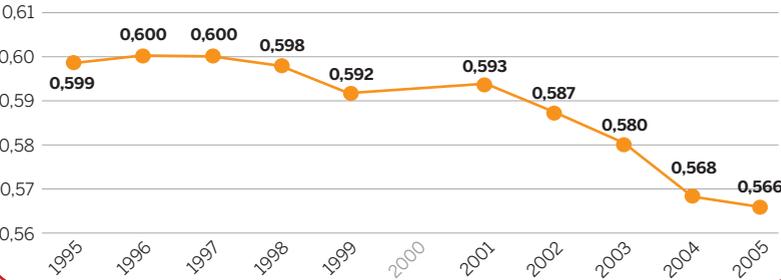
These advances represent a break in the pattern of inequality that had remained unchanged and at very high levels. While the income of the poorest 10% grew at an annual rate of 9.2% between 2001 and 2005, the income of the richest 10% fell at an annual rate of 0.4% (see graph 5). Income

**GRAPH 2 • Evolution of the number of people living in extreme poverty in Brazil \*, 1990 to 2005 (in millions)**



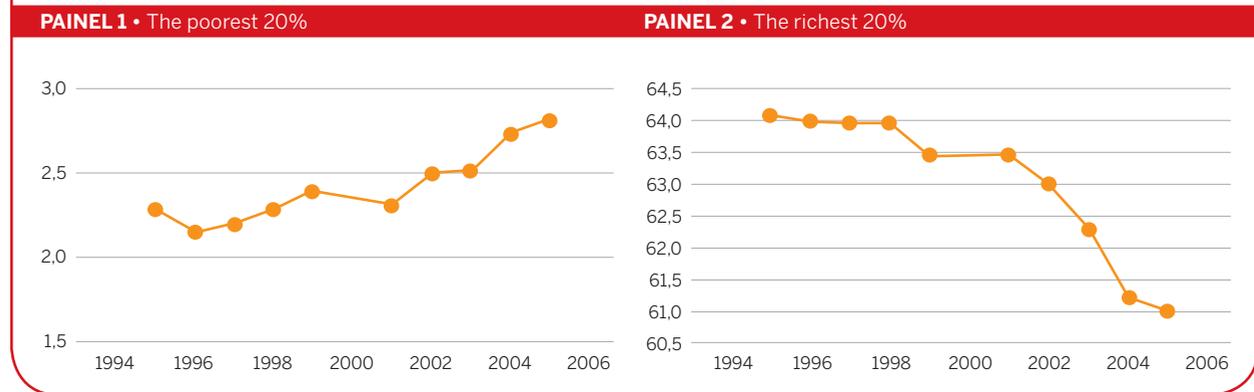
\* Excluding the rural population of the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA and AP  
Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey

**GRAPH 3 • Evolution of the Gini coefficient in Brazil \*, 1995 to 2005**



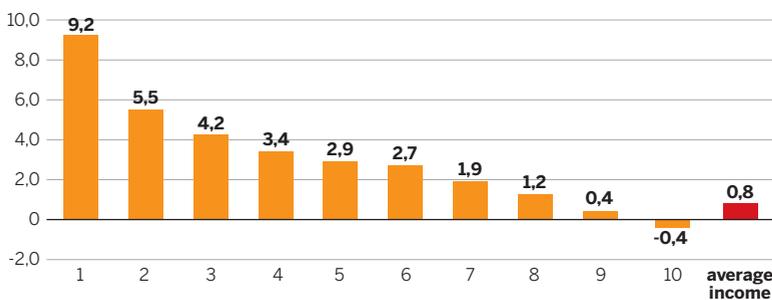
\* Excluding the rural population of the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA and AP  
Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey

**GRAPH 4 • Share of the poorest 20% and richest 20% in the national income – Brazil \*, 1995 to 2005 (%)**



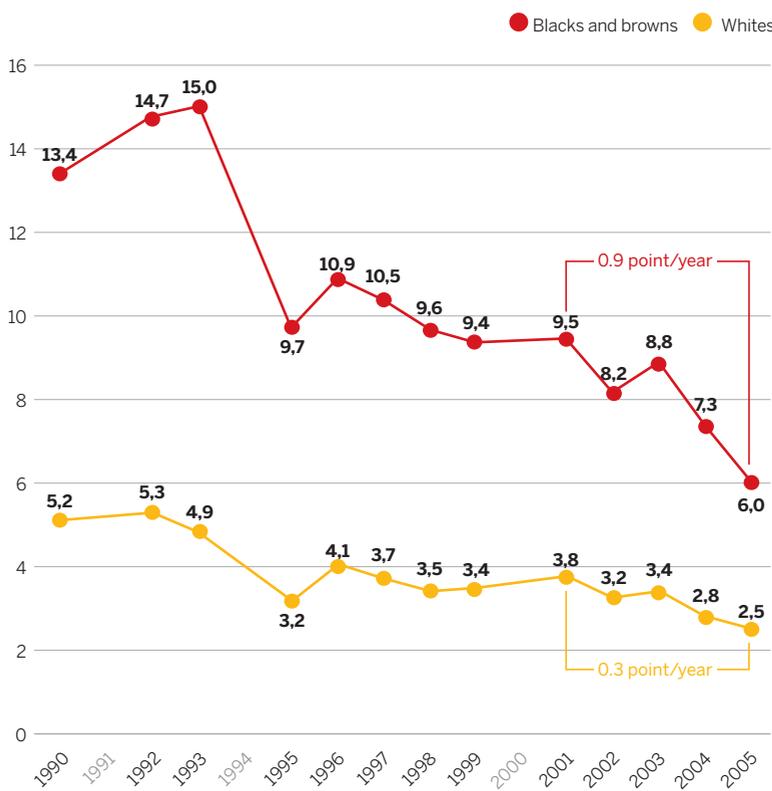
\* Excluding the rural population of the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA and AP  
Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey

**GRAPH 5 • Annual average income growth rate between 2001 and 2005 per tenth of income distribution – Brazil\* (%)**



\* Excluding the rural population of the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA and AP  
Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey

**GRAPH 6 • Evolution of extreme poverty, by color/race – Brazil \*, 1990 to 2005 (%)**



\* Excluding the rural population of the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA and AP  
Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey

levels had an even more positive outcome in 2004. There have been increases for all tenths, even if more intensely within lower-income groups.

**Income inequality drops per region and race/color**

Extreme poverty affects several groups of the population in different ways. In the Brazilian case, inequalities are more severe between white segments and Afrodescendants, between residents of urban and rural areas, and among the major regions of the country.

Despite the progress made, poverty is still related to skin color in Brazil. The distribution of extreme poverty reached a point of being three times higher among Afrodescendants than among whites<sup>3</sup>: through the methodology that uses the PPP dollar, in 1993, 15% of those in the first group were below the extreme poverty line, as compared to 4.9% of whites. In 2005, these proportions were 6.0% and 2.5%, respectively, indicating a greater pace of improvement among Afrodescendants than among whites (see graph 6).

Inequalities persist when one compares the proportion of whites and of Afrodescendants among the poorest 10% and the richest 1% in Brazil. In 2005, whites held 88.4% of the top of the pyramid and 26.5% of the poorest tenth. Blacks, however, represented 73.5% of the poorest and only 11.6% of richest (see graph 7).

There is more poverty in rural areas, but the difference in relation to cities has been narrowing. In 1990, the proportion of extremely poor people in rural areas was more than four times higher than the one in urban areas. In 2005, this disparity fell to around three times (see graph 8). This means that the pace of reduction of extreme poverty in rural areas was 1.2 percentage points per year, as compared to 0.4 in urban areas. Major reductions in rural areas derive, basically, from rural social security benefits, from cash-transfer programs, especially the Bolsa Família Program, and from rural credit supplied by means of the Program

of Support to Family Farming, Pronaf (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal).

However, in 2005, the proportion of people in rural areas living in extreme poverty was 7.9 percentage points higher than that verified in urban areas, which shows that there is still a long way to go before the elimination of these inequalities.

Disparities are also present among the regions of the country<sup>4</sup>. Extreme poverty is much more present in the Northeast Region than in the Southeast Region or the remainder of the country. However, during the period analyzed there was a significant reduction in these regional disparities.

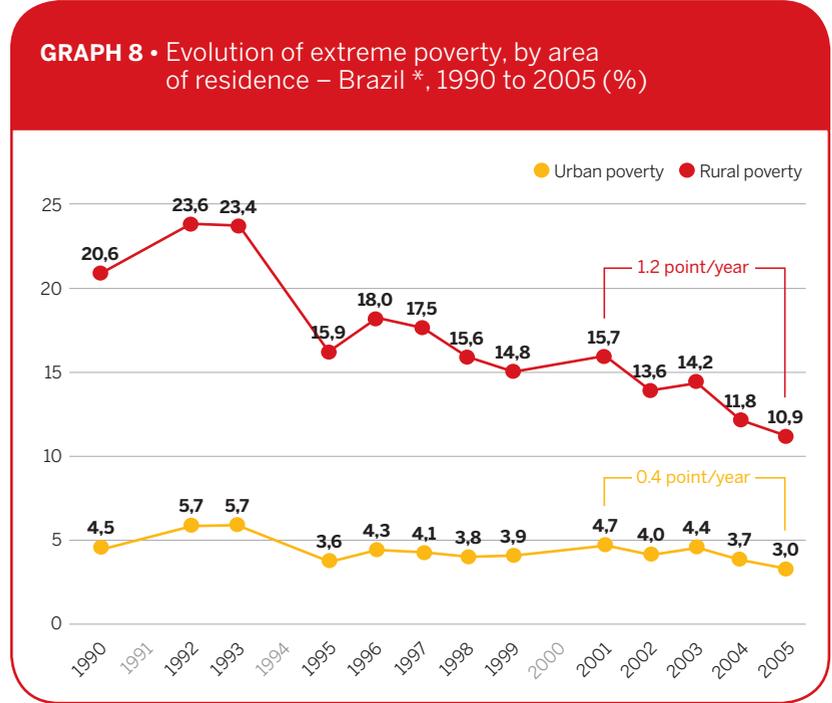
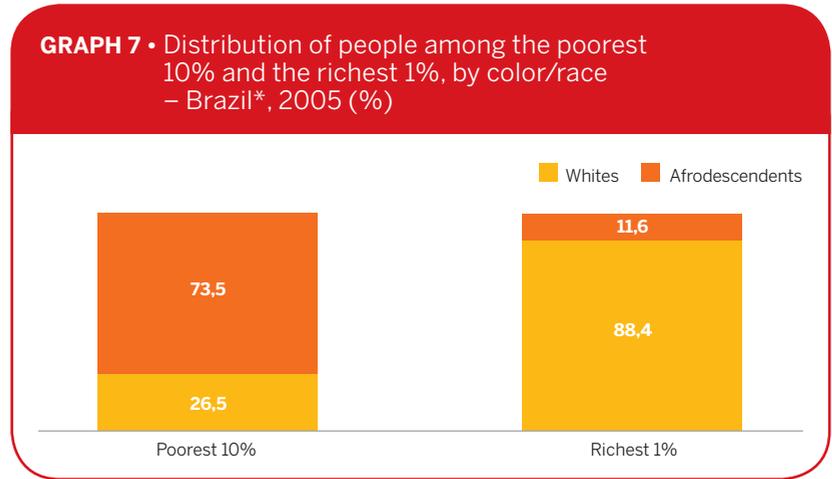
As in the cases of color/race and area of residence, reduction of the extreme pov-

erty rate was greater in the very places where the problem was more serious. While in 1993, the extreme poverty rate in the Northeast was 18.2 percentage points higher than the one in the Southeast, in 2005 this difference fell to 7.5 points (see graph 9).

Given the magnitude of extreme poverty in the Northeast Region, for the Brazilian rate to continue to fall at the same pace, the country needs to maintain the accelerated decline in the region. Thus, it is important to guarantee, as in the last years, a strong social protection network and the improvement of regional development actions.

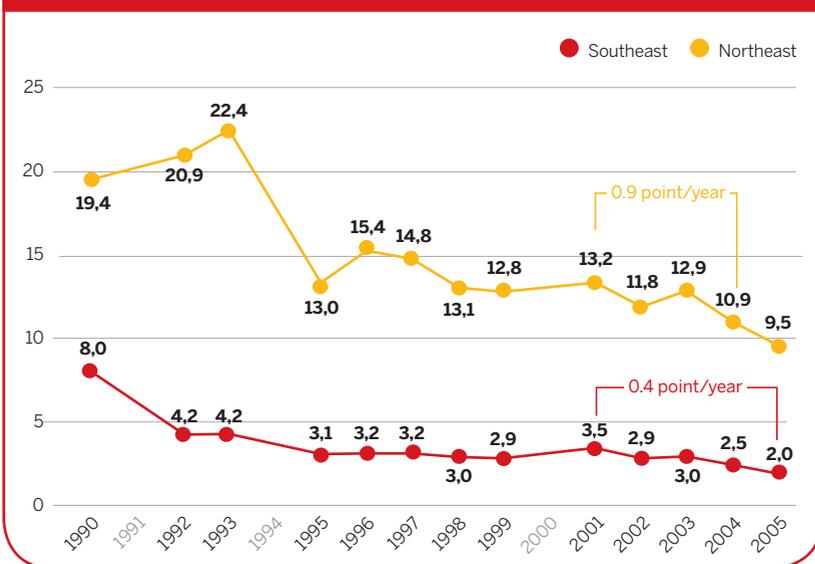
**In Brazil, hunger and malnutrition coexist with abundance of food**

In Brazil, hunger and malnutrition still constitute a challenge to be overcome, despite the recent progress made in this area, as observed in UN indicators for the monitoring of this Target – namely, the availability of calories for consumption by the population, and children weight deficits.



*Poverty levels were four times higher in rural areas than in cities in 1990 and fell to three times in 2005*

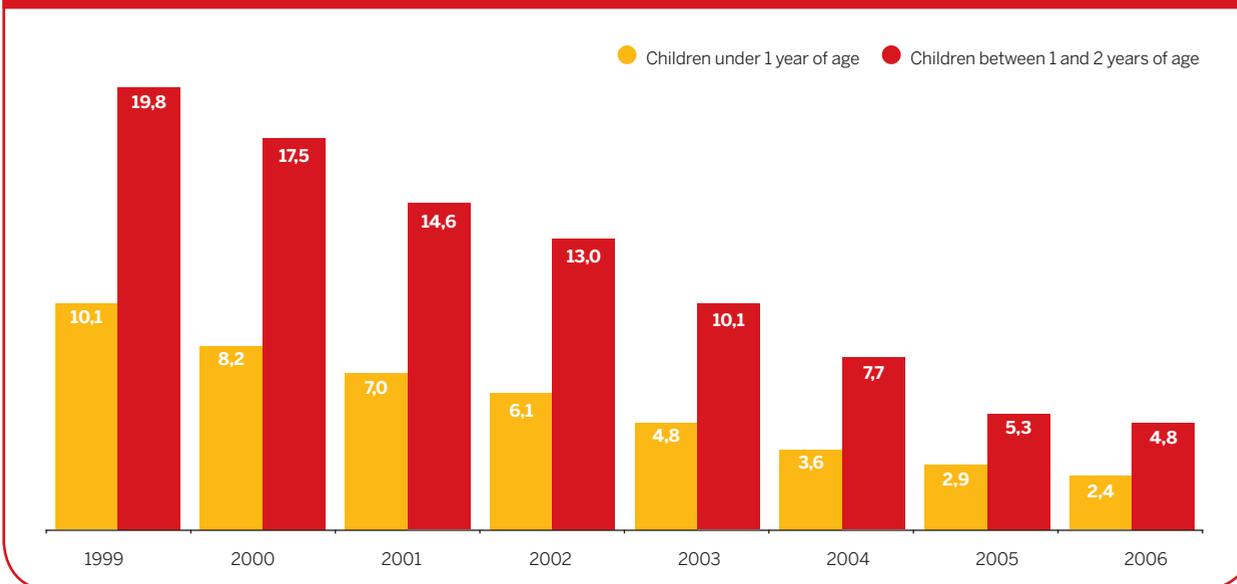
**GRAPH 9 • Evolution of extreme poverty, per regions, 1990 to 2005 (%)**



The challenges to be faced are mainly a result of poor access to food, derived from the low purchasing power of millions of Brazilians. The problem of access is aggravated by a series of other factors, such as inadequate basic sanitation conditions, low education levels, and deficient health services. Hunger and malnutrition in Brazil are not a result of scarce food production. On the contrary: national agriculture yields more than enough to meet the needs of the Brazilian population. According to estimates of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), total food availability in Brazil has increased continuously in the last decades and is in the order of 3 thousand kilocalories (kcal) per person/day. This accounts for 24% above the amount required to restore calories consumed by a person daily.

Based on the conclusion that food insufficiency is unacceptable in a country like Brazil, the Federal Government has taken on an even more rigorous commitment than that envisioned in the second

**GRAPH 10 • Protein-calorie malnutrition\* in children under one and in children aged 1 to 2 in areas covered by the Family Health Strategy in Brazil, 1999 to 2006 (%)**



\* Children whose weight was below percentile 3 (lower curve) of the weight to age curve in the Child Record Booklet  
Source: Siah/MS - Adjusted base

millennium goal: instead of reducing by half the share of people that suffer from hunger, the country committed to eliminating hunger by 2015. The indicators of malnutrition (weight deficit in relation to age and height in relation to age) and food intake are the ones used to monitor the achievement of this target.

In order to face this challenge, food security was conferred major priority in federal public policies. In 2003, the National Council for Food and Nutritional Security (Consea) was reinstated, composed of representatives of civil society and ministers of State. The priority given to the implementation of actions in this area is expressed in the Fome Zero strategy (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this goal).

The Act Food and Nutritional Security (Losan) was enacted in 2006, seeking to bring together the State and society in the construction of the paths of food and nutritional security policies, and defining the main guidelines for the area (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this goal). In July 2007, the 3rd National Conference on Food and Nutritional Security was carried out.

### Child malnutrition has fallen for three decades

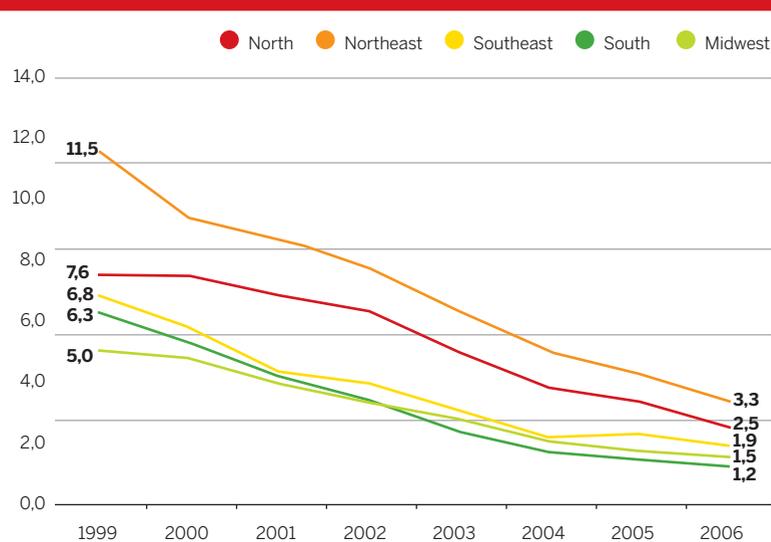
Child malnutrition has been dropping in Brazil in the last decades. In 1974-1975, 18.4% of children under-five were below the adequate weight for their age. The proportion fell in the following decades: 7.1% in 1989, 5.7% in 1996, and 4.6% in 2002-2003. As to the index of height in relation to age, which expresses accumulated alterations along time regarding children's health and nutritional situation, for example, between 1975 and 1996, a declining trend was also observed. This phenomenon is mainly due to the urbanization process that took place in the period and to the adoption of policies of education, health, sanitation, and access to food.

An assessment carried out in several countries by the International Databank on Child Growth, of the World Health Organization (WHO)<sup>5</sup> indicates that, although Brazil presents height deficits, they are below the global average (24.1%) and below the average for developing nations (26.5%). Brazil's results are also better than those of most South American countries studied (Bolivia, Colombia, Guyana, Peru, Venezuela) – behind only Chile and Uruguay.

The information on child malnutrition according to age bracket reveals important data for monitoring the Millennium Development Goals. Data of the Basic Care Information System (Siab), encompassing around 45% of the Brazilian population in the lower-income segment, indicate that malnutrition measured according to the weight-age relation of children under one year reduced from 10.1% in 1999 to 2.4% in 2006. Among children aged between 1 and 2, malnutrition fell from 19.8% to 4.8% (see graph 10). That is, disorders associated to nutritional deficits of boys and girls in the two age brackets

*Height deficit of Brazilian children is lower than the world average and that of developing nations*

**GRAPH 11 • Protein-calorie malnutrition\* in under-ones in areas covered by the Family Health Strategy in Brazilian regions, 1999 to 2006 (%)**



\* Children whose weight was below percentile 3 (lower curve) of the weight to age curve in the Child Record Booklet  
Source: Siab/MS - Adjusted base

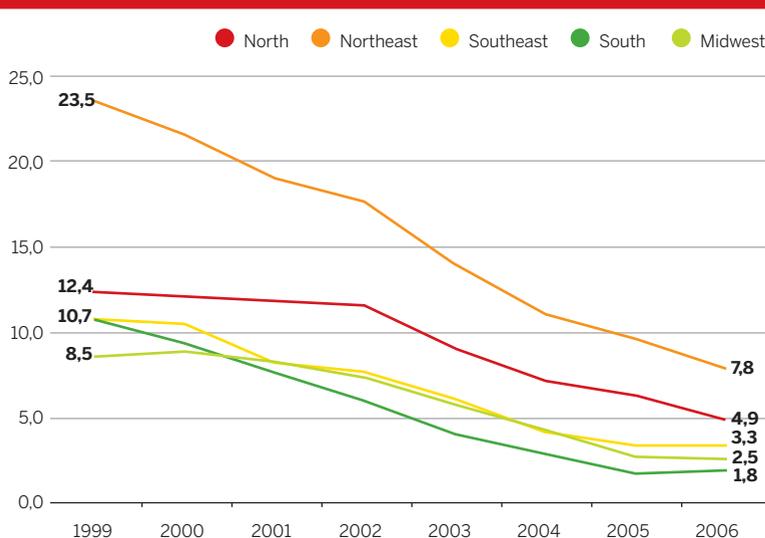
fell over 75% in seven years. This trend is observed in all regions of the country, in spite of some differences.

Between 1999 and 2006, malnutrition measured according to the appropriate weight for age fell more markedly in the

South, the region that presented the lowest incidence of diseases, according to Siab's information. There, the proportion of children under one with weight to age deficiencies fell 81%. In the Southeast, the drop was of 72%. As to the Northeast, where the highest percentages of child

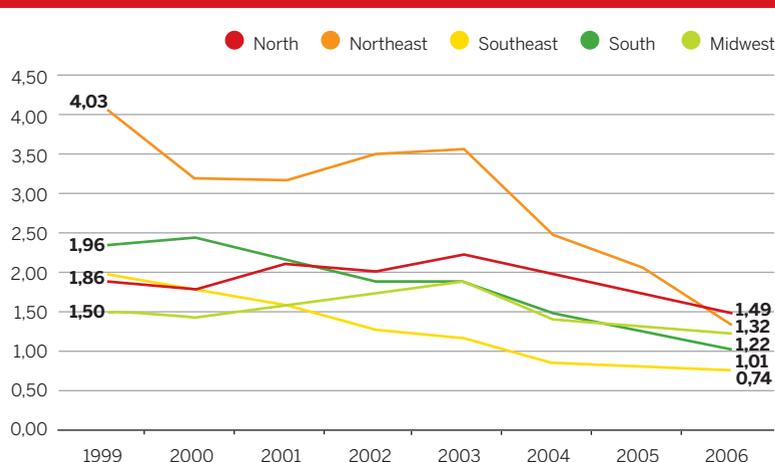
malnutrition are registered, the reduction was of 71% in the same period (see graph 11). It should be pointed out that in the Northeast region the number of boys and girls between 1 and 2 years of age with weight deficits for their age is quite significant, reaching 7.8% of the population in this age bracket in 2006. In the South, the proportion is 1.8% (see graphic 12).

**GRAPH 12 • Protein-calorie malnutrition\* in children between 1 and 2 years of age in areas covered by the Family Health Strategy in Brazilian regions, 1999 to 2006 (%)**



\* Children whose weight was below percentile 3 (lower curve) of the weight to age curve in the Child Record Booklet  
Source: Siab/MS - Adjusted base

**GRAPH 13 • Hospitalization rate of children under one year due to malnutrition in Brazilian regions, 1999 to 2006 (thousands)**



Source: SIH/MS

The information on morbidity of children up to 1 year of age, collected by the Hospital Information System (SIH/SUS), shows a similar trend. There was a 59.4% reduction in hospitalizations due to malnutrition: they fell from 2.61 per thousand in 1999 to 1.06 per thousand in 2006. In this case, the largest decline was in the Northeast Region (67.2%), and the smallest in the Midwest (18.6%). The Southeast Region registered a drop of 62.2% in the period; the South, of 56.7%; and the North, of 19.9% (see graph 13).

### Malnutrition rates fall and obesity rates rise

Household food consumption strategies depend on financial and employment conditions, and even on families' access to social assistance. Among low-income groups, the option is for cheaper products, often in detriment of quality. This share of the population normally tends to choose foods that "sustain" (breads, flours, etc.), satiate (rich in fats), and taste good (normally rich in sugars). This places the poor in a critical situation from a nutritional perspective, which can result in acute or chronic malnutrition, often combined with obesity.

In 2006, the Food and Nutritional Surveillance System (Sisvan) registered the nutritional state of 1,5 million children beneficiaries of Bolsa Família Program. The survey indicated that 2.1% of boys and girls weighed below the recommended weight for their age. Moreover, 6.7% were classified as low-weight and another 10.8% were considered as being in a state of nutritional risk. The highest proportions of weight deficit were concentrated in the North and Northeast regions, and

the lowest in the Southeast. However, among the children examined, 7.9% were classified as at risk for overweight, the majority in the Southeast.

Therefore, Brazil has declining indices of malnutrition associated to increasing overweight and obesity rates, resulting from poor eating habits. This is called “double malnutrition load”: the poorest are the more harshly affected in terms of health risks, since they often live with excess weight, obesity and malnutrition. Examples of this situation are clear from the results of the 2002-2003 Family Budget Survey (POF). According to the study, among women in extreme poverty, 8.5% suffered from malnutrition and 8.8% from obesity.

## *Lower-income Brazilians tend to experience more malnutrition and excess weight*

<sup>1</sup> The PPP dollar is measured by the purchasing power parity, an exchange rate that takes into account price differences among countries, allowing international comparisons. Thus, 1 PPP dollar has the same purchasing power in the United States and in other countries.

<sup>2</sup> The Gini coefficient is one of the inequality measurements most used in the world. It ranges from 0 (when all have the same income) to 1 (when one single person in a population holds everything and the others nothing). Among developed countries the Gini coefficient ranges from 0.496 in the United States to 0.247 in Denmark, reaching 0.352 in Australia. In Latin America, it varies from 0.452 in Uruguay to 0.566 in Brazil, according to data from the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (Eclac).

<sup>3</sup> It is important to point out that the categories black and brown, on the one hand, and white, on the other, do not encompass the whole of the Brazilian population. There are also indigenous, yellows and those who do not wish to declare their color/race in the household survey.

<sup>4</sup> The first year when the rural area of the North Region was included in Pnad's sample was 2004. In order to maintain the coherence of series and to allow comparisons, this area

### BOX 1 · Malnutrition follows poverty distribution

The social and economic inequalities in Brazil reflect in the heterogeneous conditions of malnutrition. It is possible to identify evident contrasts, for example, among the urban southeastern population, where only 1 in every 7 individuals is poor, and the rural northeastern population, where 3 in every 5 people are poor. The regional distribution of malnutrition is similar to that of poverty: North and Northeast are at a disadvantage in relation to the other regions.

As for the weight to age index, the 2002-2003 POF revealed that the northern half of the country is more affected by child malnutrition. The rate is worse in the rural North, where it reaches 14.9% of the children under five and 12% of the children aged between 5 and 9 [6], in the urban North (9.9% among children under five), rural Northeast (8.7%), and urban Northeast (7.7%).

Data of the Food and Nutritional Surveillance System (Sisvan), of the second semester of 2006 support this scenario: they show that the North and Northeast regions concentrate the highest rates of child malnutrition. Very

low weight affects, respectively, 3.01% and 2.57% of the children monitored by the Bolsa Família Program in these regions. Among children under seven, 10.2% in the North and 7.9% in the Northeast presented low weight. The lowest percentages of very low weight and low weight are concentrated in the Southeast Region: 1.38% and 4.53% respectively.

As to the height deficit, it appears as a much more frequent problem than the weight deficit, although it shows the same characteristics as for geographic distribution. At the national level, the Sisvan observed that low stature reaches 16.82% of under-sevens beneficiaries of the Bolsa Família Program, while another 10.85% are in risk of low stature. The regions with highest percentages of height deficit are, similarly to the weight deficit, the North (24.46%) and Northeast (19.22%). The problem affects the South (16.91%), Midwest (13.33%), and Southeast (10.77%) in lesser proportions. Children at risk of low stature are predominantly concentrated in the North (15.39%) and the Northeast (11.58%).

## BOX 2 • Actions place youths as protagonists of country's development

Youths aged 15 to 24 represent 34 million Brazilians, equivalent to 20% of the country's population, and require specific public policies. For the Government, youths should be regarded not only as rights-holding citizens, but as strategic players for the execution of development projects. Within this perspective, in 2005, the National Youth Secretariat was created, to promote the liaison of the several ministries that develop programs targeted at this population group; it includes the National Youth Council, a space that gathers the public authority and civil society to debate issues directly affecting Brazilian youths. A national youth policy was defined, aiming to create opportunities and guarantee youths' rights; in this policy, nine challenges were undertaken: expand access to education and ensure permanence in quality schools; eradicate illiteracy; prepare for the world of work; generate jobs and income; promote a healthy life; democratize the access to sports, leisure, culture and information technology; promote human rights and affirmative policies; encourage the exercise of citizenship and social participation; improve the quality of life in rural areas and traditional communities.

Similar to the situation in most countries, unemployment among youths is

high in Brazil. In 2005, unemployment reached 15.0% of Brazilians and 24.7% of female Brazilians aged 16 to 24 (see table 1). These percentages were slightly higher than in the previous year.

The challenge of preparing and supporting the inclusion in the labor market requires that youths have the opportunity to build capacities, through education, professional qualification, and the exercise of citizenship, and use these opportunities to have access to the labor market, credit, income, sports, leisure, culture and land.

To this effect, several public policies were implemented and innovative practices were stimulated. As a result, in 2006, around 800 thousand youths benefited from actions that combine their permanence in school or their return to school with preparation for work; encourage the development of sports and cultural skills and their transformation into productive inclusion actions;

and guarantee access to benefits and social protection with support to the reconstruction of family ties.

In the international scenario, Brazil – which has been standing out for its performance and the several programs and actions targeted at youths implemented in recent years – hosted, in 2006, the Latin American and Caribbean Meeting of Youth Leaderships (Panlac), carried out in partnership with United Nations agencies. In the event, different youth organizations of 27 countries of the region discussed and contributed to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. In January 2007, Brazil also hosted the 1st Specialized Meeting on Youth in the Mercosur in Rio de Janeiro, which contributed to the exchange and dialogue among governments and civil society, and for further deepening of the subject in the other spheres of the block.

**TABLE 1 • Unemployment rate of youths aged 16 to 24 years – Brazil and Major Regions, 2004 and 2005 (%)**

	Total		Men		Women	
	2004	2005	2004	2005	2004	2005
<b>Brazil</b>	17,9	19,1	14,1	15,0	23,1	24,7
<b>North</b>	14,3	16,4	9,0	12,0	22,8	23,0
<b>Northeast</b>	17,4	17,9	13,4	13,9	23,4	23,9
<b>Southeast</b>	21,3	22,4	17,9	17,9	25,4	28,0
<b>South</b>	12,5	13,5	9,9	10,9	15,9	16,7
<b>Midwest</b>	16,0	19,2	11,2	14,5	22,2	25,3

Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey

was also excluded from 2004 and 2005 in the analyses carried out in this report. Its inclusion does not significantly modify the trends observed, although figures suffer a slight change: extreme poverty rate in 2005 changes from 4.2% to 4.3% of the population, the number of poor people is increased by 266 thousand people, and the Gini coefficient goes up from 0.566 to 0.567.

<sup>5</sup> Survey carried out on the basis of review of anthropometric inquiries carried out in probabilistic samples of the population

of under-fives of 79 developing countries. <http://www.who.int/nutrition/databases/childgrowth/en/index.html>

<sup>6</sup> The 2002-2003 Family Budget Survey (POF) was the first national survey to include households located in the rural area of the North Region in its sample plan.

<sup>7</sup> The Child Labor Eradication Program (Peti) has, among its lines of action, a cash-transfer action to families. This action is being incorporated to the Bolsa Família Program.

### BOX 3 • Brazil defines agenda to promote decent work

In June 2003, Brazil formalized its commitment for the promotion of decent work, resulting in the launching of the National Agenda for Decent Work in May 2006. According to the definition of the International Labor Organization (ILO), decent work is understood as, “decent and productive work, adequately remunerated, exercised in conditions of freedom, equity and security, able to guarantee human dignity”. Its promotion is divided into four strategic goals, as established in the 87th ILO Conference in 1999: respect for international labor standards, in particular for basic labor principles and rights; promotion of work quality; expansion of social protection; and promotion of social dialogue.

The implementation, management and monitoring of this broad agenda are under an executive committee comprised of seven ministries and four secretariats of the Presidency of the Republic. The work is coordinated by the Ministry of Labor and relies on systematic contribution from employers and workers organizations.

Decent work is a key condition for the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals, since it is through decent work that people integrate into society and participate in wealth generation and distribution. It also con-

stitutes a mechanism that encourages companies’ productivity, the vitality of economies, and promotion of sustainable development. Therefore, it is essential to overcome poverty, reduce social inequalities, and to guarantee democratic governability. Initiatives and policies to reduce poverty and inequality tend to become insufficient if they do not increase job opportunities or improve working conditions of the poor, including those in the informal economy.

The indicators of the work situation in Brazil demonstrate the relevance of the goals proposed by the National Agenda for Decent Work. In 2005, there were 49 million unemployed in the country, self-employed or unregistered wage-earners, a figure that is equivalent to 56.2% of the economically active population (PEA).

In the fields of employment, gender and race, inequalities are still significant: while the unemployment rate of white males was 6.3 % in 2005, that of Afrodescendent males was 8.1%. As to white females it amounted to 10.7%, against 14.1% for Afrodescendent females. To aggravate things, in that year, around 3 million children and adolescents under 16 years of age were working or looking for work, the vast majority in Family Farming

or domestic work. Although several of these indicators have improved significantly in the last years, partly due to resumed economic growth as of 2004, the country faces a deficit of decent work, whose reduction will require efforts on the part of the government and society.

The National Agenda for Decent Work is organized around three priorities: improved job generation, with equal opportunities and treatment; eradication of slave labor and elimination of child labor, especially its worst forms; and strengthening tripartite dialogue (companies, employees and government) and social dialogue as an instrument of democratic governability.

Each one of these priorities gathers different lines of action, some of which were already underway before the creation of the Agenda. As recent examples one can mention an increase in labor inspection actions, the policy of appreciation of the minimum wage, the child labor eradication program, advancements in [7] the fight against slave labor, and the preparation of national plans for women’s policies and racial equality. In addition, in 2003 the National Labor Forum was created, aiming to establish the tripartite dialogue on the union and labor legislation reforms.

# MDG 1 • ERADICATE EXTREME POVERTY AND HUNGER

## MAIN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

### FOME ZERO AND SOCIAL INCLUSION PROGRAMS

### TARGETS 1

(UN)

REDUCE BY HALF, BETWEEN 1990 AND 2015, THE PROPORTION OF PEOPLE LIVING ON LESS THAN \$1 A DAY

#### 1 • Access to food:

- a. *Bolsa Família* Program – PBF
- b. National School Meal Program – PNAE
- c. Distribution of food baskets to specific population groups
- d. Promotion of healthy life and eating habits
- e. Creation of Subsidized Restaurants, Community Kitchens and Food Banks
- f. Worker's Food Program – PAT
- g. Food and Nutritional Security Act– LOSAN

#### 2 • Agrarian development:

- a. National Land Reform Program – PNRA
- b. National Program for Strengthening of Family Farming – PRONAF
- c. Program for the Purchase of Family Farming Produce – PAA

#### 3 • Job and income generation:

- a. Investments of the Workers Support Fund for Job and Income Generation
- b. Program Solidarity Economy in Development
- c. Banking Inclusion and Microcredit
- d. National Qualification Plan – PNQ
- e. Minimum Wage Recovery Policy

#### 4 • Children and adolescents:

- a. Child Labor Eradication Program – PETI
- b. First Job National Program – PNPE
- c. Sports after School Program
- d. Young Agents Project
- e. National Program for the Inclusion Youths - PROJOVEM
- f. Service Against Sexual Abuse and Exploitation of Children and Adolescents
- g. Child and Adolescent Presidential Plan

#### 5 • The elderly and people with disabilities:

- a. Continued Provision Benefit and Life Monthly Income

#### 6 • Citizenship and social inclusion:

- a. Slave Labor Eradication Program
- b. Living Culture Program (Culture Spots)
- c. Implementation of the Unified Social Assistance System – SUAS
- d. Social Security
- e. Actions for the Promotion of Racial Equality
- f. *Brasil Quilombola* Program

### TARGETS 1A

(BRAZIL)

REDUCE TO ONE QUARTER, BETWEEN 1990 AND 2015, THE PROPORTION OF PEOPLE LIVING ON LESS THAN \$1 A DAY



# GOALLI



# MDG 1 • ERADICATE EXTREME POVERTY AND HUNGER

## MAIN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

### FOME ZERO AND SOCIAL INCLUSION PROGRAMS

#### TARGET 2

(UN)

REDUCE BY HALF,  
BETWEEN 1990  
AND 2015, THE  
PROPORTION OF  
PEOPLE WHO SUFFER  
FROM HUNGER

#### 1 • Access to food:

- a. *Bolsa Família* Program – PBF
- b. National School Meal Program – PNAE
- c. Distribution of food baskets to specific population groups
- d. Promotion of healthy life and eating habits
- e. Creation of Subsidized Restaurants, Community Kitchens and Food Banks
- f. Worker's Food Program – PAT
- g. Food and Nutritional Security Act – LOSAN

#### 2 • Agrarian development:

- a. National Land Reform Program – PNRA
- b. National Program for Strengthening of Family Farming – PRONAF
- c. Program for the Purchase of Family Farming Produce – PAA

#### 3 • Job and income generation:

- a. Investments of the Workers Support Fund for Job and Income Generation
- b. Program Solidarity Economy in Development
- c. Banking Inclusion and Microcredit
- d. National Qualification Plan – PNQ
- e. Minimum Wage Recovery Policy

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- a. Child Labor Eradication Program – PETI
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- c. Sports after School Program
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- f. Service Against Sexual Abuse and Exploitation of Children and Adolescents
- g. Child and Adolescent Presidential Plan

#### 5 • The elderly and people with disabilities:

- a. Continued Provision Benefit and Life Monthly Income

#### 6 • Citizenship and social inclusion:

- a. Slave Labor Eradication Program
- b. Living Culture Program (Culture Spots)
- c. Implementation of the Unified Social Assistance System – SUAS
- d. Social Security
- e. Actions for the Promotion of Racial Equality
- f. *Brasil Quilombola* Program

#### TARGET 2A

(BRAZIL)

ERADICATE  
HUNGER BETWEEN  
1990 AND 2015



# GOALLI





# ACHIEVE UNIVERSAL ELEMENTARY EDUCATION



# 2

## MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

**TARGET 3** • ENSURE THAT, BY 2015, CHILDREN EVERYWHERE, BOYS AND GIRLS ALIKE, WILL BE ABLE TO COMPLETE A FULL COURSE OF PRIMARY SCHOOLING

**TARGET 3A (BRAZILIAN)** • ENSURE THAT, BY 2015, ALL CHILDREN, BOYS AND GIRLS ALIKE, OF ALL REGIONS OF THE COUNTRY, REGARDLESS OF COLOR, RACE OR GENDER, COMPLETE BASIC EDUCATION.

# BRAZIL GETS CHILDREN INTO SCHOOL; THE CHALLENGE IS TO UNIVERSALIZE THE COMPLETION OF BASIC EDUCATION

Brazil managed to achieve near universal access to school for the population in the 7 to 14 age bracket.

Between 1992 and 2005, there was an expressive increase in the proportion of youths attending school (school attendance rate), and also a significant reduction of different types of inequality (see table 1).

A comparison of basic education attendance rates in the different regions of the country reveals a reduction of inequalities in this regard. Between 1992 and 2005, the difference between the regions registering the highest and the lowest rates fell from around 20% to less than 4%. In secondary education, a similar trend occurred: in the same period, the difference between attendance rates in the Northeast and Southeast Regions dropped from 61% to 48%.

There was also expressive reduction in racial inequalities. From 1992 to 2005, the difference in basic education attendance rates between the white population and the non white population fell from 12.2 to less than 2 percentage points. In secondary education, the reduction of inequalities was even more marked. In the beginning of the period, the proportion of non whites attending secondary education was only one third of that of white students. In 2005, it rose to two thirds.

Between 1992 and 2005, another improvement was achieved in the indicators for rural and urban areas. In the beginning of the period, 66.5% of the children aged 7 to 14 in rural areas attended this level of education, at the end, this rate had risen to 92.5%.

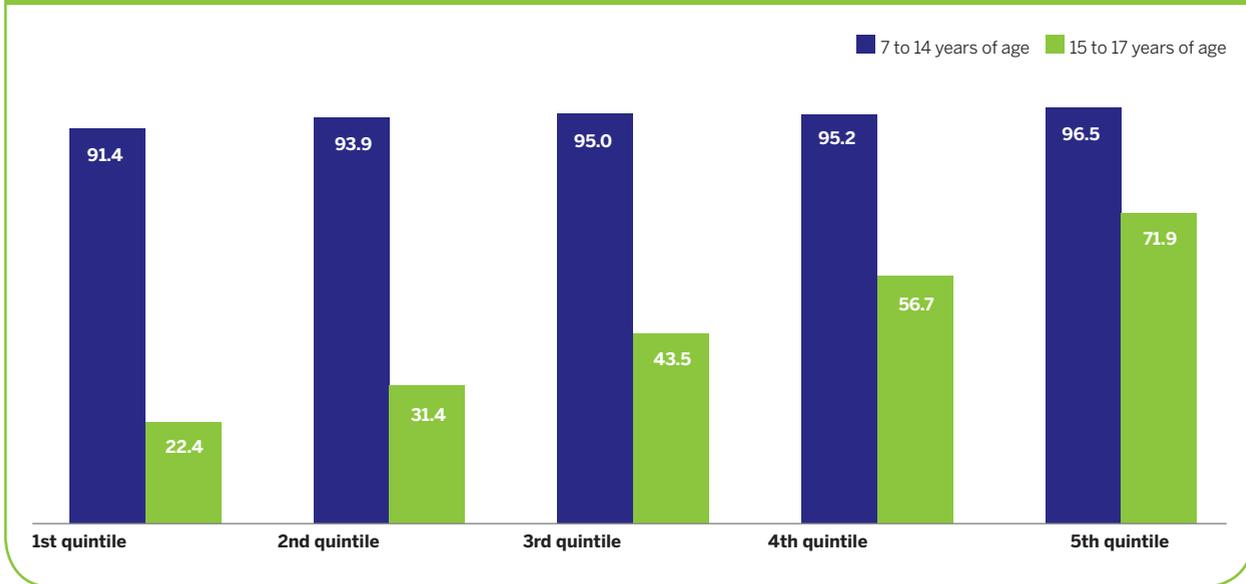
The comparison of students according to family income, however, demonstrates that there are deep inequalities in this regard (see graph 1). In basic education, the difference between school attendance rates of the richest and poorest segments is 5 percentage points; in secondary education, the gap is approximately ten times wider.

**TABLE 1 •** Net school attendance rate of 7 to 17 year-olds, per age group and level of schooling, by gender, color/race and household location – Brazil and Major Regions, 1992 and 2005 (in %)

Selected Characteristics	Basic 7 to 14 years of age		Secondary 15 to 17 years of age	
	1992	2005	1992	2005
<b>Total*</b>	<b>81.4</b>	<b>94.5</b>	<b>18.2</b>	<b>46.0</b>
North*	82.5	93.9	11.7	35.4
Northeast	69.7	92.4	9.5	30.1
Southeast	88.0	95.8	24.3	57.4
South	86.9	95.9	23.1	53.6
Midwest	85.9	94.7	17.5	45.9
<b>Gender</b>				
Male	79.9	94.3	15.1	41.2
Female	82.7	94.8	21.3	50.7
<b>Color/Race</b>				
White	87.5	95.5	27.1	56.9
Non White	75.3	93.7	9.2	36.3
<b>Household location</b>				
Rural	66.5	92.5	5.3	25.7
Urban	86.2	95.0	22.3	50.4

Source: IBGE, National Household Sample Survey of 1992 and 2005  
\* Excluding rural population of the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA and AP

**GRAPH 1 •** Net attendance rate of 7 to 17 year-olds, by age group, according to quintiles of monthly per capita family income – Brazil, 2005 (in %)



Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey

The low attendance rate in secondary education, in the 15 to 17 age bracket, is mainly due to the huge age-grade distortion that affects most of these youths and, especially, those in the lower-income groups. In 2005, around 82% of Brazilians aged 15 to 17 attended schools, but only about 45% of them were in secondary education. Among those in the group of the poorest 20%, the net attendance rate was half the national average.

The difficulties in ensuring that all Brazilians complete basic education, as established by the Federal Constitution, are not related to limited supply of vacancies, but to conditions inside and outside schools that affect students' performance and school life flow. Due to these difficulties, the expected rate of completion of basic education is slightly higher than 50%, way below the desired level (see table 2). Moreover, the average time spent by students to complete the eight grades is slightly more than ten years. These two additional years reflect the deep regional inequalities that exist throughout the country, distinguishing

the South-Southeast from the North-Northeast regions.

In the last 15 years, there were advances concerning the expected rate of conclusion of basic education. In the early nineties, only 38% of the students used to complete this level of education, in an average time of 11.7 years.

As regards the completion of the 4th grade of basic education, the rates are within more acceptable levels, especially in the South and Southeast regions, where the net attendance rates in this level of education are similar. However, in the North and Northeast regions, the rates are around 80%, and the expected average length of time for completion is increased by about six years.

The differences between the rates of completion of 4th and 8th grades are also more marked in the North and Northeast regions, if compared to those of the South and Southeast. In the two former regions, 50% of those who complete the 4th grade drop out of school before

*In school attendance rates, the regional and color/race inequalities were reduced*

*Fundeb: more financial resources to improve basic education*

completing basic education, while in the Southeast region the drop-out rate is 27% (see table 2).

Students' progress can be verified by means of the index of suitability of the relation between age and years of schooling. The index defines as a minimum parameter, for example, a 9-year-old child who has completed at least one grade of basic education and, at the age of 16, has completed basic education. Calculated this way, almost 72% of Brazilians in the 9 to 16 age bracket would be in an appropriate situation (see graph 2).

The analysis of this indicator in major Brazilian regions demonstrates that the highest rates of distortion are found in the North and Northeast regions, where less than 60% of the population aged 9 to 16 is within the desired standard, while in the South and Southeast regions, the rate is over 80%. This indicator reveals the extent to which regional disaggregation makes a difference in the educational situation of young Brazilians. Data also show that the appropriate relation between age and years of schooling drops as students' age increases (see graph 3).

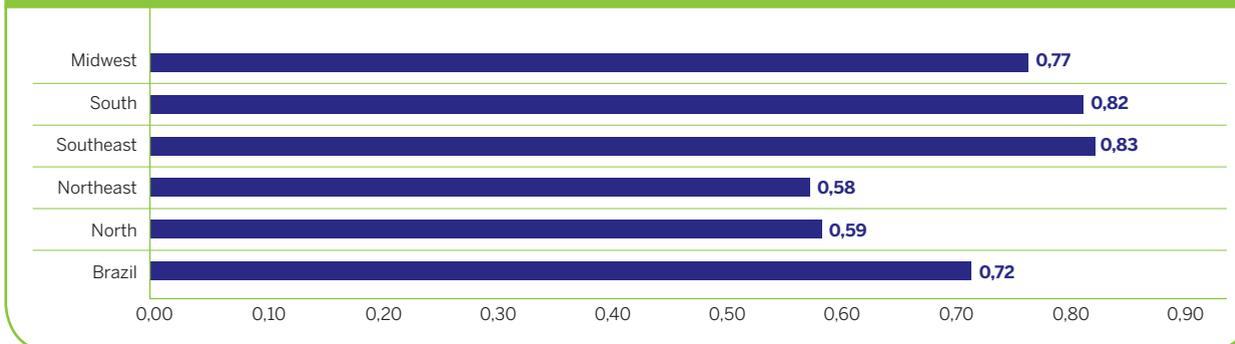
Another challenge in this area relates to the quality of education. Results of the National System of Evaluation of Basic Schooling (Saeb) demonstrate that the students' performance has declined in

**TABLE 2 •** Expected average rate and average length of time for conclusion of the 4th and the 8th grade of basic education – Brazil and Major Regions, 2005

	4th grade		8th grade	
	Expected average rate of completion (%)	Expected average length of time for completion (years)	Expected average rate of completion (%)	Expected average length of time for completion (years)
<b>Brazil</b>	<b>88.7</b>	<b>5.1</b>	<b>53.5</b>	<b>10.1</b>
North	82	5.9	41.2	11.1
Northeast	78.8	5.9	38.2	11.5
Southeast	95.5	4.4	69.3	9.2
South	95.1	4.6	65.1	9.6
Midwest	88.2	4.9	47.9	10.1

Source: Ministry of Education/INEP

**GRAPH 2 •** Index of suitability of the relation between age and years of schooling of the population aged 9 to 16, Brazil and Major Regions, 2005



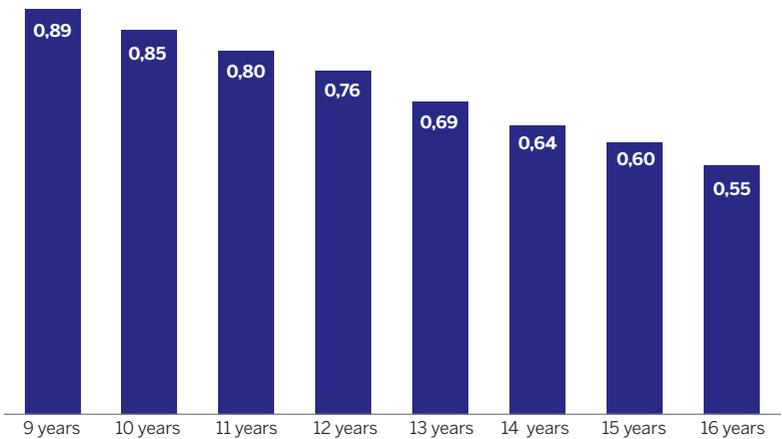
Source: Ministry of Education/Inep, based on data from IBGE - National Sample Household Survey, 2005

recent years, especially among those enrolled in the government school network. A comparison of average scores of students in state and municipal schools shows that, between 1995 and 2005, there has been deterioration both in absolute terms and in relation to students in the private network (see graphs 4 and 5).

One of the possible explanations for this is the inclusion of a significant share of the population that was out of school. Between 1991 and 2005, 4.6 million students joined basic education and another 5.2 million joined secondary education in the government school network. In general, they are students in a situation of greater social vulnerability who come upon a school environment that is ill-equipped to help them overcome that previous condition. Among the deficiencies found by this group one can mention the low qualification of teachers, the lack of pedagogical materials, and precarious infrastructure of schools, characteristics that are common in units located in rural areas and urban outskirts. This confluence of negative factors results in the low performance of these students, which, in turn, contributes to lower the average score of students enrolled in public schools.

Some measures have been adopted for the country to break away from this vicious circle, characterized by the continuous link between social vulnerability and school failure, and to raise the quality of basic education significantly. The Law of Guidelines and Bases of National Education, dated 1996, established the concept of Basic Schooling (which includes early childhood, basic and secondary education) and enabled the implementation of actions aimed at increasing the supply of non-compulsory levels of education. In 2006, the National Congress approved a bill for constitutional amendment, prepared by the Federal Government, creating the Fund for Maintenance and Development of Basic Schooling and Appreciation of Teaching - the Fundeb (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement

**GRAPH 3 •** Index of suitability of the relation between age and years of schooling, per age – Brazil, 2005



Source: Ministry of Education/Inep, based on data from IBGE - National Sample Household Survey, 2005

of this Goal). The Fundeb provides for additional financial resources for government education systems and enables investments to improve the quality of basic schooling as a whole, to expand the access to child education, and to work gradually on making secondary education compulsory.

Also, Law n° 11.274 was sanctioned in 2006, aiming at increasing students' years of schooling, extending from eight to nine years the duration of basic education, which is the minimum schooling established by the Brazilian Constitution. Therefore, now children should start school in this level of education at the age of 6, rather than 7. Schools will have five years to implement this law (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal).

In addition, in April 2007 the Plan for the Development of Education (PDE) was launched – (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal). It is a governmental initiative that aims to level the average performance of Brazilians, within 15 years, with the current level of performance of students

*Federal  
Government  
envisions raising  
the performance  
of Brazilian  
students to the  
standard of  
OECD countries*

*Literacy programs will confer priority to poorest regions*

from member countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). To this effect, the Basic Schooling Development Index (Ideb) was instituted, and will be the main indicator to monitor the evolution of performance of the Brazilian educational system. This implies substantial improvement of pedagogical conditions in schools, especially those located in urban peripheries and rural areas, which are often the ones with the worse teaching conditions.

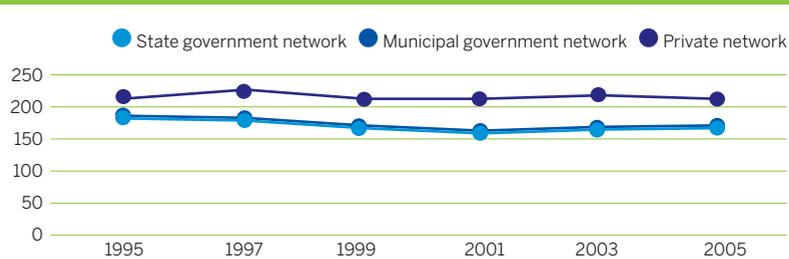
*Eliminating illiteracy among youths requires attention to the North and Northeast Regions*

Another indicator recommended by the United Nations to assess the fulfillment of the second Millennium Development Goal is the literacy rate of youths between 15 and 24 years of age (see table 3). In Brazil, the average rate reached 97.2% in 2005, an increase of 5.9 percentage points in relation to the index registered in 1992. But, while in the South and Southeast regions around 1% of the population in this age bracket could not read or write, in the Northeast the index was 6.3% in 2005. Therefore, the challenge of eradicating illiteracy within this age bracket requires initiatives targeting youths in the less developed regions of the country.

Although in Brazil illiteracy is concentrated in the adult population, mainly among the elderly<sup>1</sup>, the Brazilian educational system has not managed to eradicate it among youths.

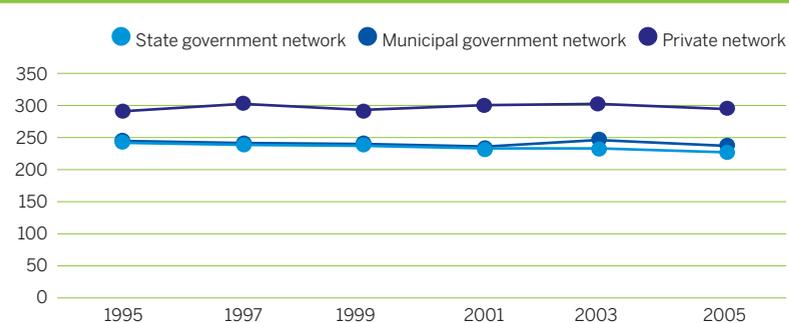
To improve the effectiveness of the literacy process among youths and adults, the new implementation strategy of the *Brasil Alfabetizado* Program (Literate Brazil Program) will encourage the engagement of teachers of the government school network, who will receive monthly fees to teach during their free time (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal). Despite its national scope, the program will confer priority to mu-

**GRAPH 4 •** Results of Saeb in Portuguese Language, in the 4th grade of basic education, per type of school network, in urban schools – Brazil, 1995 to 2005



Source: Ministry of Education/Inep

**GRAPH 5 •** Results of Saeb in Mathematics, in the 8th grade of basic education, per type of school network, in urban schools – Brazil, 1995 to 2005



Source: Ministry of Education/Inep

municipalities with illiteracy rates higher than 35%, mainly concentrated in the Northeast region, and to illiterate youths aged 15 to 29.

Examining all these factors, one can observe that increased supply of vacancies and guaranteed access to almost all of the population between 7 and 14 years of age constituted important advances towards the universalization of basic education in Brazil. However, the current challenge is no less complex, since it will require that all students who start school actually complete compulsory schooling, and that, gradually, universal access is granted to the other levels of education that are part of basic schooling.

<sup>1</sup> According to data from Pnad 2005.

**TABLE 3 • Literacy rate of people aged 15 to 24, by gender, color/race and household location – Brazil and Major Regions, 2005 (in %)**

Selected Characteristics	Literacy rate	
	1992	2005
<b>Total</b>	<b>91.3</b>	<b>97.2</b>
North	94.0	98.0
Northeast	80.0	93.7
Southeast	96.5	98.9
South	96.8	98.8
Midwest	95.4	98.7
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	89.2	96.3
Female	93.5	98.2
<b>Color/Race</b>		
White	95.6	98.4
Non white	86.8	96.1
<b>Household location</b>		
Urban	94.8	98.1
Rural	78.8	92.7

Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey - 1992 and 2005  
Note: excluding the rural population of the states of AC, AM, AP, PA, RO and RR.

# MDG 2 • ACHIEVE UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION

## MAIN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

### TARGET 3

(UN)

ENSURE THAT, BY 2015, CHILDREN EVERYWHERE, BOYS AND GIRLS ALIKE, WILL BE ABLE TO COMPLETE A FULL COURSE OF PRIMARY SCHOOLING

- a.** Fund for Maintenance and Development of Basic Schooling and Appreciation of Education Professionals – FUNDEB
- b.** National School Transport Program – PNATE
- c.** National School Book Program – PNLD
- d.** Literacy of Youths and Adults
- e.** Quality Plan for Basic of Schooling
- f.** Plan for the Development of Education – PDE

### TARGET 3A

(BRAZIL)

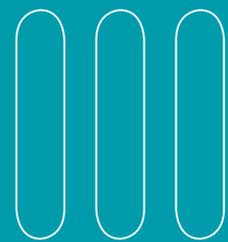
ENSURE THAT, BY 2015, ALL CHILDREN, BOYS AND GIRLS ALIKE, OF ALL REGIONS OF THE COUNTRY, REGARDLESS OF COLOR, RACE OR GENDER, CONCLUDE BASIC EDUCATION



# GOAL 2



PROMOTE  
GENDER EQUALITY  
AND EMPOWER  
WOMEN





# 3

## MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL

**TARGET 4** • ELIMINATE GENDER DISPARITY  
IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION, PREFERABLY  
BY 2005, AND IN ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION NO  
LATER THAN 2015



# THERE ARE MORE WOMEN THAN MEN AT UNIVERSITY, BUT THEY STILL EARN LESS THAN MEN

The first two editions of the Brazilian Monitoring Report of the Millennium Development Goals already indicated that the focus of this target is not compatible with Brazilian reality. Even though girls are doing better than boys in the education arena, this advantage has not been enough to curb gender disparities or to promote *de facto* gender equality in Brazil. Although gender inequality in formal education plays a central role in other countries, in the Brazilian context problems are mainly related to discrimination in the labor market and in the political sphere, and to violations of basic rights, in particular domestic violence.

Another aspect that should be taken into account in the analysis of gender inequality is the racial component. It is not unusual for some indicators to conceal strong distortions, for example, between white males and non-white females. Therefore, the disaggregation of certain data

by color/race is extremely important for the evaluation of Brazil's performance in this third Millennium Goal.

## Inequality declines, but women are still a majority in schools

Education data in Brazil show that women are almost always in a better situation than men. In recent years, indicators have been better for girls than for boys both regarding access to school and permanence in school. This result reflects the progress occurred along the 20th century, when women achieved the opportunity of becoming literate and gained greater access to schooling, from basic to higher education. This change represents an important step towards women empowerment, even though it does not mean the overcoming of the difficulties they face.

The first indicator proposed by the United Nations to monitor gender equality and the achievement of women's em-

powerment is the comparison between the proportion of women and men attending school (net attendance rate in basic, secondary and higher education). Table 1 shows the ratio between the total of girls and boys attending school. The data indicate that, in the country as a whole, the female population has greater access to education in the three levels of schooling. The higher the schooling level, the higher the number of females in relation to males. While in primary education the proportion of girls and boys is nearly the same – mainly due to the universalization of access –, in secondary education the total of female students is 23% greater than that of males. In higher education, the difference rises to 31%.

In secondary education, inequalities have decreased along the years, except for the South and Midwest regions. In 1992, the number of females in this level of education was almost 41% higher than that of males. In 2005, this percentage fell to 23%. Among the reasons for this convergence, once again, is the process of universalization of access to basic education, which allowed a greater number of students to enter secondary education.

In higher education, two challenges should be highlighted. The first is the difficulty to maintain boys at school. Circumstances of life and gender stereotypes lead numerous male students to attempt, unsuccessfully, to combine work and school, when they reach secondary education. This often results in students dropping out of school, reducing their chances of getting into university.

Girls, also due to gender stereotypes, end up taking on household chores, and therefore are better able to combine work at home with school activities, which allows them to remain at school for a longer period of years. These two factors explain, at least partially, the increased gender inequality in higher education. In 1992, there were nearly 20% more females than males at university; in 2005, this percentage reached 31.2%.

The second challenge of higher education refers to the distribution of males and females among the different areas of knowledge. Female university students tend to concentrate in the areas of education and social well-being – representing 76% and 71% of the students in the two areas respectively; male university students choose mainly the areas of engineering and exact sciences (mathematics, sciences and information technology), filling 74% and 65% of the vacancies respectively.

Such preferences, derived from the different socialization of boys and girls, result in a segregation that goes beyond the university environment. The separation of careers reflects, to a large extent, the gender division of labor – with “female careers” being more linked to social areas, and therefore with “care”, and “male careers” being more related to exact sciences, more technical areas. This divide corresponds to a division in terms of hierarchy, as well as social recognition and wages: while the so-called “female” careers end up being less socially valued, those occupied by men enjoy higher remuneration and greater social prestige. This helps explain the persisting substantial differences between men’s and women’s wages.

While increased gender inequalities can be found within higher schooling levels, they have been reduced at the literacy level. In 1992, the total of literate females was 5% higher than that of males. In 2003, this percentage dropped to 2.1%, and in 2005, to 1.9%. This trend is illustrated in graph 1, which displays virtually the same percentages of literate males and females in the 15-24 age bracket, in almost all the regions of the country. The disparity between whites vis-à-vis afrodescendents has also been reduced – which means that young black or brown women have changed a historical scenario where their literacy rates were much lower than that of males and whites.

In recent years, there has been a significant decline in illiteracy rates, occurring more markedly among young afrodescendent males than among young white males. This progress, however, was not sufficient to mitigate the racial inequality scenario present in the country. The illiteracy rate among afrodescendents (15.4%) is more than twice as high as that of whites (7.0%). Among youths aged 15 to 24, even though the illiteracy rate is lower, the rate found among afrodescendents (4.0%) is almost three times higher than that of whites (1.4%).

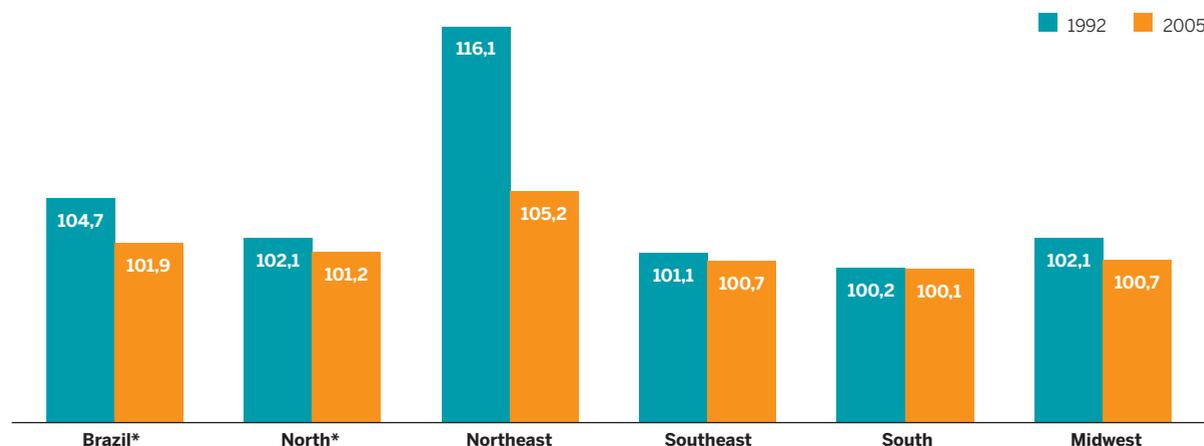
*In the 15 to 24 age group, literacy rates are nearly the same among males and females*

**TABLE 1** • Ratio between school attendance rates of males and females in basic (7 to 14 year-olds), secondary (15 to 17 year-olds) and higher education (18 to 24 year-olds) – Brazil and Macrorregions, 1992 and 2005

	Number of female students / Number of male students by level of schooling					
	Basic		Secondary		Tertiary	
	1992	2005	1992	2005	1992	2005
<b>Brazil*</b>	<b>100.8</b>	<b>100.6</b>	<b>140.7</b>	<b>123.1</b>	<b>119.9</b>	<b>130.8</b>
North*	105.9	99.7	126.3	117.6	128.1	153.9
Northeast	107.8	101.3	180.2	147.4	127.3	129.9
Southeast	97.1	100.6	146.8	117.5	111.6	128.5
South	98.5	99.9	112.1	117.1	137.1	136.7
Midwest	98.0	100.0	107.2	127.9	135.7	123.2

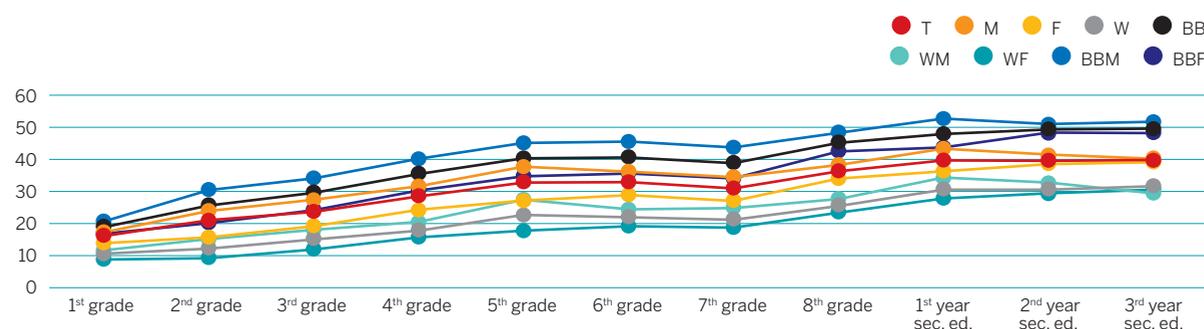
\*Excluding the rural population of the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA and AP  
Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey - 1992 and 2005

**GRAPH 1 • Ratio between literacy rates of females and males aged 15 to 24 – Brazil and Macrorregions, 1992 and 2005**



\*Excluding the rural population in the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA, AP  
Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey - 1992 and 2005

**GRAPH 2 • Rate of students lagging behind in basic and secondary education, per gender and color/race - Brazil\*, 2005 (in %)**



\*Excluding the rural population in the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA, AP  
Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey - 1992 and 2005

*Color/race is more relevant to school lag than gender*

Gender and color/race inequalities are also reflected in the learning process and in the age-grade distortion rates found among students in basic and secondary education<sup>1</sup>. In all population groups these rates are very high, reaching nearly 40% of students in the last (third) year of secondary education. However, when gender and color/race aspects are taken into account, it becomes clear that the problem of lagging behind in school is more severe for males and for the black or brown population. Gender imbalances are less significant and are reduced

as students move up schooling levels. Racial inequalities, however, are more markedly expressed and increase along school life.

Thus, while 38.2% of boys and 34% of girls attending the 8th grade were lagging behind in 2005, i.e. they were aged 16+, among whites and among afro-descendants these percentages were 25.7% and 45.3% respectively. In the last year of secondary education, disparities between males and females decrease (less than 1 percentage point), and reach 19.3

points when the number of afrodescendents is compared to that of whites (see graph 2).

In general, the age-grade distortion is more expressive among afrodescendent boys. In 2005, 48.4% of students in this group enrolled in the 8th grade of basic education were “behind”, against 36% of the total of students. Distortions are even more severe in the last (third) year of secondary education: over half of afrodescendent boys were lagging behind (51.5%), i.e. above the rate of afrodescendent girls (48.2%), and way above the rate of white boys (30%) and white girls (30.7%).

These figures allow one to conclude that the racial component is more of a determining aspect in school lag than gender, to the extent that the advantageous situation enjoyed by females in education is minimized when the color/race element is taken into account: afrodescendent girls are almost always in a worse situation than white boys.

### Women's progress in education does not eliminate their difficulty to enter the labor market

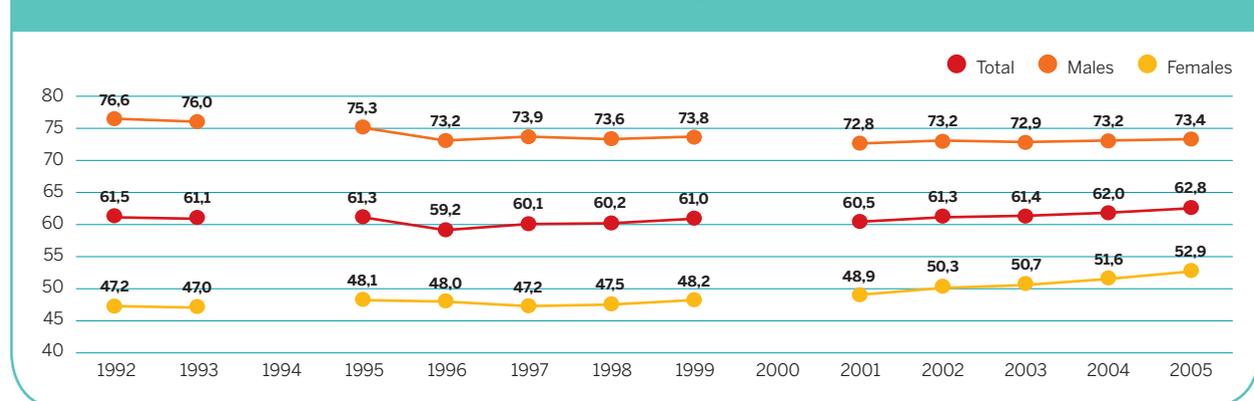
Despite being ahead in the field of education, women are at a disadvantage regarding the Brazilian labor market. Even

with increased access to university, they still participate less in the world of work, earn lower wages, and occupy the worst positions, both in terms of wages and social protection.

Between 1992 and 2005, there was an increase in the share of women in the labor market<sup>2</sup>. This has been occurring since the seventies, when the country experienced significant economic growth, allowing for the generation of new jobs and the inclusion of a large number of female workers. At the same time, there were changes in behavior and values related to social roles, enabling greater access of women to productive spaces. Both the increased schooling and reduced fertility of the female population play a central role in the construction of this new scenario.

Despite the progress achieved, the difference between rates of activity of males and females remains high. In 2005, while 73.4% of males aged 10+ worked or were looking for jobs, only 52.9% of females were in the same situation (see graph 3). This indicator is based on a labor concept that does not take into account activities carried out outside the market, as, for example, household chores. These activities, traditionally carried out by women, can be considered productive, although unpaid, since they

**GRAPH 3 • Rate of participation in the labor market, per gender – Brazil, 1992 to 2005\* (in %)**



\*Excluding the rural population of the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA and AP. Source: IBGE, Pnad 1992 to 2005 (except 1994 and 2000, when the Pnad was not carried out)

*In the field of domestic work, which employs 17% of the total female workforce, three quarters are not formally registered*

offer to society goods and services that are essential to ensure its well-being. In 2005, 90.6% of women carried out some type of activity related to household tasks and care, while among men, this proportion was 51.1%.

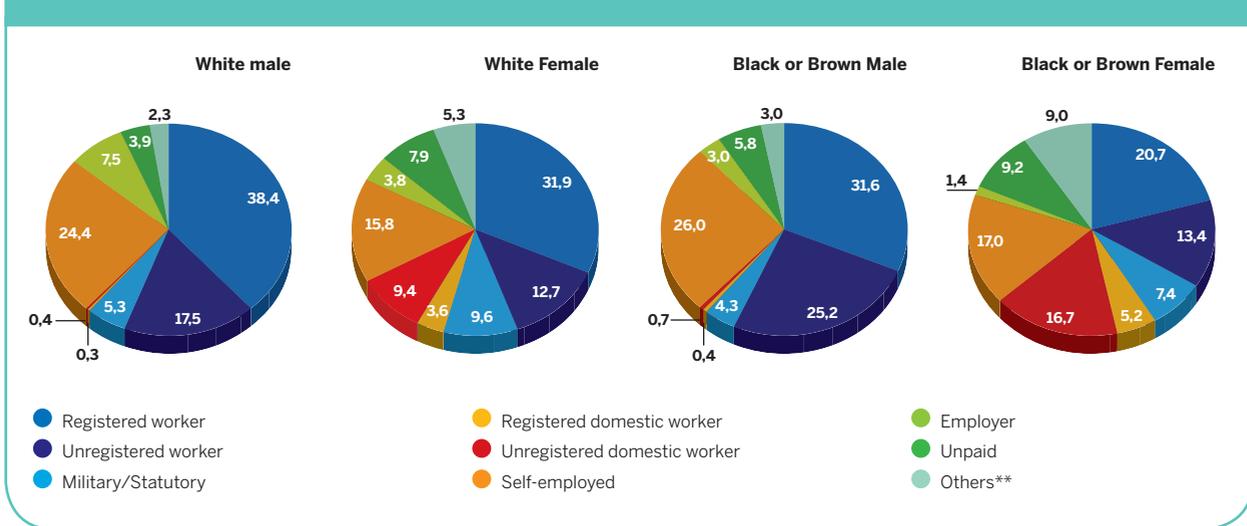
The difficulties faced by women are also reflected in the way they take part in the labor market. In 2005, women were over-represented among the categories of unpaid workers (8.5% of occupied women) and domestic workers (17.1%). In these two groups, there is a high level of precariousness: remuneration is low or non-existent and workers very rarely have access to social security and benefits. On the other hand, the proportion of males in formally registered employment (35.0%) is significantly higher than that of women (26.7%), and the percentage of male employers (5.4%) is double that of female employers.

Data disaggregation by color/race shows that afrodescendent workers are in the worst situation in the labor market. In 2005, 38.4% of the occupied white men were formally registered workers. Among afrodescendent workers, this propor-

tion was 31.6%. In the case of female afrodescendent workers, only 20.7% were registered. Afrodescendent males were also over-represented among unregistered workers: they were approximately a quarter of the occupied total - making them the population group with the largest proportion of informal workers. One should also highlight the high percentage of afrodescendent women occupied in unpaid activities (9.2%) (see graph 4).

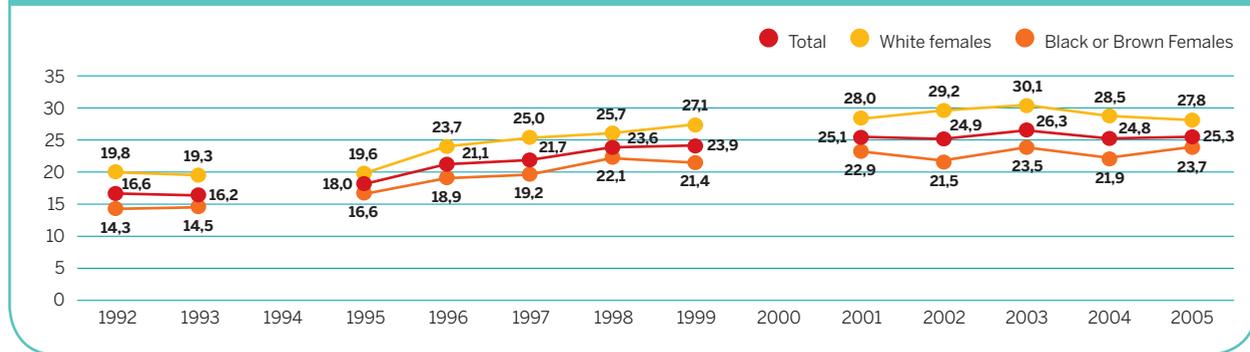
The large number of female domestic workers and the high proportion of unregistered labor in this area represent the most evident side of the precariousness of female work. Domestic work is badly remunerated, requires long hours, is quite heavy in terms of physical effort, and provides little guarantees in terms of future security – due to the low levels of social protection provided. In 2004, female domestic workers earned, on average, R\$ 14.32 per worked day, as opposed to R\$ 32.72 among the population in general. Most of them (41%) work over 40 hours a week, very often working hours are flexible and include evenings, weekends and bank holidays,

**GRAPH 4 •** Distribution of the occupied population, per gender and color/race, according to position in the occupation – Brazil\*, 2005 (in %)



\*Excluding the rural population in the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA, AP  
 \*\* Includes workers in the production for own consumption and self-help construction workers  
 Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey - 2005

**GRAPH 5 •** Proportion of registered female domestic workers, by color/race – Brazil, 1992 to 2005 (in %)



Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey - 1992 to 2005

especially for those who live in their workplace. Thus, working hours contained in the Pnad may not reflect all this extra time, which workers themselves are often not even aware of.

In 2005, female domestic workers accounted for 17.1% of the female workforce in the country, and approximately three quarters of them were not formally registered. The proportion of unregistered female workers has been falling along the decade, however, informality still affects millions of them, especially afrodescendent female workers (see graph 5). The double discrimination suffered by these women is evident in this case.

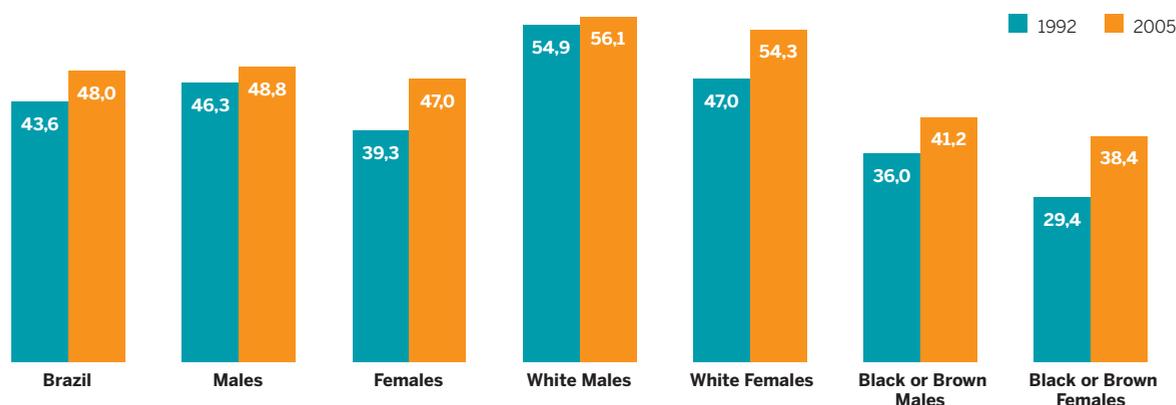
The low levels of contribution to Social Security in Brazil, however, are not exclusive to domestic work: in 2005, only 48.0% of the occupied population was protected by the welfare system. This proportion has been increasing along this decade, especially among women. Even though afrodescendent female workers showed the greatest increase in this indicator, they continue to occupy the worst position in the ranking (see graph 6). In 1992, only 29.4% of the occupied afrodescendent women contributed to Social Security, with an increase to 38.4% in 2005, however, the figure is still below that of afrodescendent men (41.2%), white women (54.3%), and white men (56.1%).

Inequality between afrodescendent women and white men is astounding and reveals that, also in this case, the color/race aspect is more significant than gender. The analysis of working conditions of different social groups indicates that afrodescendents, regardless of gender, always make up the base of the pyramid. Such disparities are related to an imbalanced inclusion in the labor market that ends up being reproduced in the Social Security area.

With a view to extending the redistributive character of the social security system, Brazil enacted Law n° 11.324/06. It allows employers to deduce from Individual Income Tax, any Social Security contributions paid on behalf of female domestic workers hired (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal). The law aims to encourage formal registration within the category, entitling these workers to rights such as 30-day paid yearly vacations, weekly rest on Sundays and bank holidays, and stability for pregnant women.

### Wage differences drop faster between genders than between whites and blacks and browns

The disparity in the distribution of men and women among the different work categories contributes to generating

**GRAPH 6** • Proportion of the occupied population contributing to Social Security, by gender and color/race - Brazil 1992 and 2005 (in %)

Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey - 1992 and 2005

distortions in the income levels of the two groups. Inequality in the earnings of males and females, however, has followed the downward trend indicated in previous reports. The distortions found in the disaggregation by color/race have also been reduced, even if at a slower pace. In 1992, the earnings of afrodescendent workers corresponded to half of that of whites. In 2005, this situation improved: the average hourly earnings of afrodescendents corresponded to 54.5% of that of both male and female whites (see graph 7).

Once again, one can observe a clear hierarchy, with white men on the top of the workers pyramid, with higher wages and a greater number of formally registered workers. They are followed by white women, afrodescendent men and, finally, afrodescendent women – who earn only 47.2% of the average hourly earnings of white men. Nevertheless, inequalities have decreased in recent years. Between 1992 and 2005, income disparities between all the groups analyzed have dropped, even though this trend has been more intense for some groups.

The discrimination against women in the labor market becomes quite evi-

dent when hourly earnings data are analyzed according to number of years of schooling. The higher the schooling level, the greater the inequalities observed between males and females. In the group with less schooling, distortions tend to be less significant since the market addressed is generally marked by homogeneity, less qualified and more precarious occupations. However, in positions that require a higher level of schooling, discrimination and career segregation end up restricting the access of females to more valued professions and high hierarchy positions. Recent

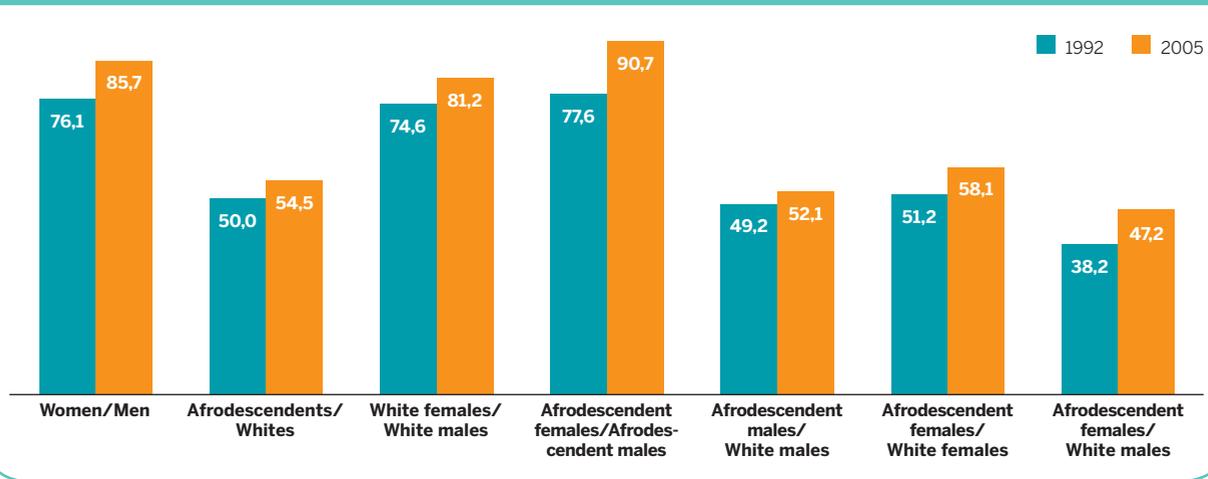
data have indicated, however, that the gap between the earnings of men and women with higher schooling levels is narrowing (see table 2).

In data disaggregated by color/race, it is observed that inequality is greater among the occupied population with lower schooling levels. In the group of workers with up to 4 years of schooling, afrodescendents earn 70.6% of the hourly earnings of white men and women. Among workers with higher education, this figure is nearly 72% and, in intermediate schooling levels, it is 75.5%. In this case,

**TABLE 2** • Relation of hourly earnings, by gender and color/race, according to years of schooling – Brazil\*, 2005 (in %)

	Total	Years of schooling			
		Up to 4 years	Between 5 and 8 years	Between 9 and 11 years	12 years or more
Female/Male	85,7	86,2	71,6	72,7	62,5
Afrodescendent/white	54,5	70,6	73,5	75,5	71,8
White females/white males	81,2	80,1	67,2	72,9	62,8
Afrodescendent females/black or brown males	90,7	91,0	77,7	73,0	65,9
Afrodescendent males /white males	52,1	68,0	70,6	75,6	71,8
Afrodescendent females /white females	58,1	77,3	81,5	75,8	75,3
Afrodescendent females /white males	47,2	61,9	54,8	55,2	47,3

\* Excluding the rural population of the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA and AP  
Source: IBGE, National Sample Household Survey - 2005

**GRAPH 7 • Relation of average hourly earnings, by gender and color/race – Brazil\*, 1992 and 2005 (in %)**

\*Excluding the rural population of the states of RO, AC, AM, RR, PA and AP  
Source: IBGE, National Household Sample Survey, 1992 and 2005

differently from the situation observed for gender inequalities, the number of years of schooling takes on greater weight as a determinant of income.

### More than two in every six women working in the agricultural sector are unpaid workers

The Millennium Development Goals also recommend that countries monitor the proportion of unpaid women in the non-agricultural sector. As indicated in previous reports, in the case of Brazil this is not the most relevant indicator, since, according to 2005 data, only 3.8% of female workers in the non-agricultural sector were unpaid.

However, this is not the situation of women working in the agricultural sector. In rural areas, female work is often not considered a wealth-generating activity, especially regarding the participation of women in family farming. Activities carried out by women are often regarded as a hand or a household chore with no link to the market. The cultural aspect is so significant that women themselves often do not acknowledge their work in farming and animal husbandry as a productive activity.

Even if these activities are acknowledged as work, to a large extent women are not remunerated for it. The share of unpaid women occupied in the agricultural sector<sup>3</sup> reaches 35.6%. This proportion has been falling slowly along recent years – in 1992, it was 39.2%. The South region was the one to experience the greatest decline: between 1992 and 2005, there was a reduction of 16 percentage points in this indicator. Nevertheless, the region continues to have the highest rates of unpaid female workers in agricultural activities (47.6%) in the country.

### Women hold 9% of the seats in the House of Representatives and 15% of the seats in Senate

Another indicator proposed by the United Nations to monitor the performance of the third Millennium Goal is the number of women holding seats in the national Parliament. In the Brazilian case, this was extended to include female participation in politics in all government levels and the three Branches. Therefore, other indicators were included to address the proportion of women in office in elective positions in the state and municipal spheres, and in high hierarchy positions in the Judiciary and Executive Branch-

*The higher the schooling level, the greater the difference between male and female wages*

*The North region  
elected more  
women for Congress  
and state legislative  
assemblies*

es, which are positions of discretionary assignment.

In 2006, the country held elections for Executive and Legislative positions at the federal and state levels. The result shows the great difficulties to increase female presence in political representation spaces. Although women have advanced in the world of work, and have higher education levels than men, they hold less than 9% of the seats in the House of Representatives, and only 14.8% of the seats in Senate. These numbers place Brazil in a 104th position in a world list of almost 190 countries regarding female participation in Parliaments<sup>4</sup>.

The increased proportion of women elected between 1998 and 2002 was followed by a behavior that seems to indicate a stabilization trend in the 2006 elections (see graph 8). Female participation remained virtually the same both in Senate and in the House of Representatives, which brings about some questioning regarding the effect of the Quotas Law. The law only authorizes political parties to fulfill one quota for each gender of, at least, 30% of the total candidacies to the House of Representatives and legislative assemblies of states, municipalities and the Federal District. There is still much to be done in the field of public interventions to change the current scenario. The 2nd

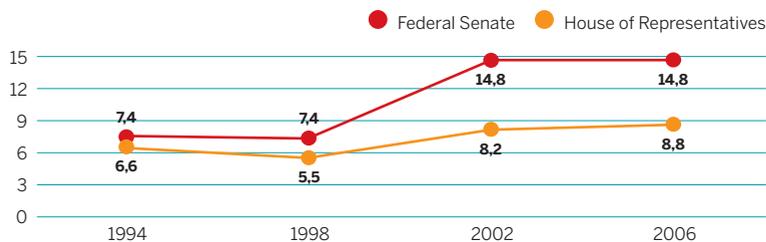
National Conference on Women's Policies, in August 2007, discussed female under-representation in spaces of power. Based on the Conference guidelines, the National Plan for Women's Policies will be reviewed to include the political dimension, contributing to make the political space actually democratic (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal).

The states of the North region are the ones that elect the highest number of women for the national Parliament and state legislative assemblies. The 2006 elections confirmed the importance of the region for female parliamentary representation. Thanks to the performance of female candidates from the North, the number of women in the House of Representatives has not dropped. The South region, in turn, was the one to elect the smallest number of women: out of the 45 seats held last year, only 4 (9%) were held by women.

In the competition for state Legislative positions the situation was similar. In 2006, only 123 female state/municipal representatives were elected, the equivalent of 11.6% of the total number of seats in the country. This result was worse than that of the 2002 elections, with 133 female representatives elected – i.e. 12.6% of the total seats. Regional discrepancies are less significant in this case: the difference between the region that elects more women (North) and the one that elects less women (South) is only 4.8 percentage points. In the House of Representatives, this difference reached nearly 15 percentage points.

As for the number of female state governors, it increased in the last election: three female governors were elected (Pará, Rio Grande do Norte, and Rio Grande do Sul). This result – representing a participation of 15% of women within the total – is slightly better than the one achieved in 2002, when two candidates, one in the Southeast and another in the Northeast region, won state elections.

**GRAPH 8** • Proportion of women elected senators and federal representatives in relation to the total of elected candidates – Brazil, 1994, 1998, 2002, and 2006



Source: House of Representatives and Federal Senate

**TABLE 3** • Women elected to the House of Representatives and state legislative assemblies – Brazil and Macrorregions, 2006

	Female Federal Representatives		Female State and Local Representatives	
	Absolute n°	% in relation to total elected	Absolute n°	% in relation to total elected
Midwest	3	7.3%	12	10.6%
Northeast	9	6.0%	42	12.3%
North	13	20.0%	25	13.5%
Southeast	16	8.9%	31	11.4%
South	4	5.2%	13	8.7%
<b>Total</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>8.8%</b>	<b>123</b>	<b>11.6%</b>

Source: Feminist Center for Studies and Advisory Services - Cfemea

Data show that female participation in positions in the Executive and Legislative Branches continues to be small in the three levels of government<sup>5</sup>. The factors that can explain this include especially those related to social and cultural dimensions. The different socialization of boys and girls, in general, creates a situation where women are not associated with political activities.

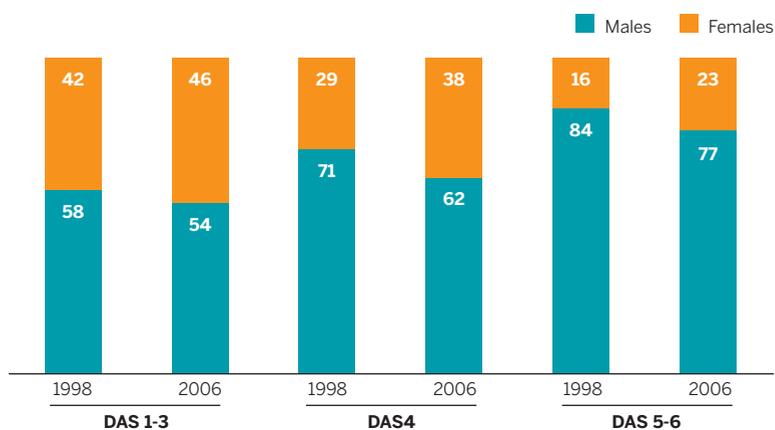
In addition to the indicators showing women's under-representation in Legislative positions, other important aspects should be taken into account in the analysis of female participation in politics. One of them is the nomination of women to positions of advisory in the federal Executive Branch, the DAS positions (Higher Management and Advisory Positions). For every level of DAS analyzed, there was increased women's participation between 1998 and 2006, with a more significant movement at higher levels (*see graph 9*). In fact, female participation in DAS level 5 and 6 grew over 40%. This increase strengthens the trend observed during the last decade and indicates that changes have taken place in a sustained manner. However, major inequalities persist that need to be overcome: while the share of DAS 1 to 3 held by women already accounted for 46% in 2006, the proportion for DAS 4 was little more than one third and, for DAS 5 and 6, positions of higher pay and greater responsibility, it was only 23%.

In the Judiciary Branch the situation is quite similar. Recruitment through public entry tests guarantees relatively greater female participation, however, higher hierarchy positions are held mainly by men. The number of women who reach the position of ministers in the most important courts of the country is still reduced. Between 2005 and 2006, however, this scenario improved, especially in the Superior Labor Court, which increased from one to four the number of female justices. The most important fact was, undoubtedly, the nomination, for the first time in the history of the country, of a woman to chair the Federal Supreme Court for the 2006-2008 period.

#### Police stations specialized in assistance to women are concentrated in the Southeast

Although it is widely recognized that domestic and sexual violence is a phenomenon present in the lives of millions of Brazilian girls and women, there are no systematic and official statistics to measure on its magnitude. Some studies, carried out by non-government research institutions – as the one carried out by Perseu Abramo Foundation in 2001, and by the Patrícia Galvão Institute in 2006 – reveal that around 40% of Brazilian women have suffered some type of domestic violence at least once.

*Number of female judges grew in the Superior Labor Court, and for the first time the Federal Supreme Court has a Chairwoman*

**GRAPH 9 •** Distribution of DAS positions, by gender – Brazil, 1998 and 2006 (in %)

Source: Secretariat of Human Resources / Ministry of Planning, Budget and Management

Even though it has not been included in the MDG goals or indicators, domestic violence is, unquestionably, one of the main impediments to the empowerment of women and to the possibility of their enjoyment of a full life, regarding their rights, integrity, and dignity. Therefore, we chose to present some indicators that reflect the main challenges for government intervention in this area.

The first major challenge is the need to increase the coverage of Police Stations Specialized in Assistance to Women (DEAM)<sup>6</sup>. In 2004, there were 357 DEAMs in the country spread throughout 345 municipalities. In that year, all municipalities with more than 500 thousand people had at least one DEAM, but coverage in municipalities with less than 20 thousand people was still very low: only 11 of the 3.9 thousand municipalities this size had a specialized police station. These types of police precincts are not only few, but badly distributed among the regions: half of them are in the Southeast, while the other 178 are distributed among 3.9 thousand municipalities. This means that, while in the Southeast around 10% of municipalities have at least one DEAM, in the Northeast the coverage is

below 3%. Since domestic violence is not restricted to large urban centers, even though in these municipalities the absolute number of cases is greater, the challenge will be, therefore, to ensure that the service is extended to inland areas and smaller municipalities.

Another important indicator to monitor violence against women is the number of cases reported in Police Stations Specialized in Assistance to Women. The total of reports grew in recent years: from an average of 1,437 cases per DEAM in 2003, to 1,761 in 2005. The most recurrent offences are threats, bodily harm, assault, injury, slander, and defamation, which in 2005 accounted for 78% of the total cases reported.

It is important to highlight, however, that the increased number of cases reported does not necessarily mean an increase in domestic violence. Some initiatives, as the National Policy to Fight Violence Against Women (*see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal*), have contributed to disclose the violence that occurs in the private arena. These initiatives help

*Policies to assist women victims of violence increase the number of reported of cases*

create a culture of reporting within society and encourage victims to seek help from police authorities. Therefore, it is expected that this increase in reporting continues, since there is still a high rate of cases that go unreported.

Maria da Penha Act, Law n° 11.340/06, increases the severity of punishment for aggression against women, and allows for putting in custody the offenders caught in the act (*see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal*), contributing to increase the number of reports. The law entered into force in August 2006, and, although there are no official systematic data, information received from some DEAMs show that, in the 30 days that followed the enactment of the law, the number of reports doubled. The Disque 180 (180 Hotline) – telephone service providing care and guidance to women victims of some type of violence – established in 2005 (*see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal*), should also lead to increased number of reports along the next years, since it advises victims to look for the competent authorities and report the case.

Both Law Maria da Penha and the Disque 180 hot line are important achievements of a society seeking to tackle domestic violence and promote the protection of human rights. In addition, they provide inputs for the production of data that will increase knowledge on the phenomenon and, thus, to the preparation or adjustment of more efficient government policies to fight it.

<sup>1</sup> Data on the lagging behind of Brazilian students underwent important changes since the publication of the last Brazilian Monitoring Report of the MDGs. On that occasion, the rate referred to the percentage of children above the recommended age for the grade they attended. As of 2005, however, a new approach was adopted: the age-grade suitability; in basic education, a child aged 9+ attending 1st grade is considered to be

lagging behind in school; 10+ attending the 2nd grade, and so on up to the end of secondary education.

<sup>2</sup> The phenomenon of increased rate of female participation in the labor market is predominantly urban and concentrated in the South and Southeast regions, where service activities, considered typically female, are more intense.

<sup>3</sup> Considering women working in the agricultural sector who declared their position as “unpaid”.

<sup>4</sup> According to data from the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), available at <<http://www.ipu.org>>. Consulted on 25th May 2007.

<sup>5</sup> In the case of municipal governments and legislatures, it should be pointed out that, since no elections were held since the publication of the last report, in 2005, the proportion of women in office remained the same. In 2004, 6,5 thousand women were elected to municipal councils, accounting for 12.6% of the total of municipal legislators in the country. In the municipal Executive, only 404 women (7.5% of the total) were elected mayors.

<sup>6</sup> Data refer to 2004, but cannot be compared to those presented in the previous report, showing 2001 data. This is due to the fact that DEAMs are state agencies that are extended to municipalities, generally through Specialized Nuclei for Women’s Care. In the most recent survey, featured in this report, data refer only to DEAMs, while previous surveys include information both from DEAMs and Specialized Nuclei for Women’s Care.

# MDG 3 • PROMOTE GENDER EQUALITY AND EMPOWER WOMEN

## MAIN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

### TARGET 4

(UN)

ELIMINATE GENDER DISPARITY IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION, PREFERABLY BY 2005, AND IN ALL LEVELS OF EDUCATION NO LATER THAN 2015

- a. National Plan for Women's Policies - PNPM
- b. Brazil Gender and Race Program
- c. Promotion of gender equality in the world of work
- d. National Program for Rural Female Workers Documentation
- e. National Program for the Strengthening of Family Farming – Female PRONAF
- f. Technical Assistance and Rural Extension for Female Rural Workers
- g. Program for Prevention and Combat of Violence Against Women
- h. Measures to address trafficking in human beings
- i. Program for Gender and Diversity Awareness at School
- j. Women and Science Program

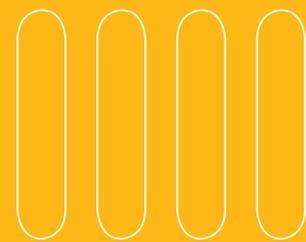


# GOALS 3





# REDUCE CHILD MORTALITY



# 4

**MILLENNIUM  
DEVELOPMENT GOAL**

**TARGET 5** • REDUCE BY TWO-THIRDS,  
BETWEEN 1990 AND 2015, THE UNDER-FIVE MORTALITY

# BRAZIL REDUCES CHILD MORTALITY AND GETS CLOSER TO THE ESTABLISHED TARGET

In 1990, the child mortality rate (children under 5 years of age) in Brazil was 53.7 per thousand live births. To fulfill the commitment of reducing mortality in this age bracket by two-thirds by 2015, as envisioned in the fourth Millennium Development Goal, the country needs to decrease the number of deaths to less than 18 per thousand until the deadline. In 2005, the rate was already down to 28.7.

Progress achieved between 1990 and 2005 shows that the child mortality rate has

been continuously dropping in Brazil (see table 1). In this period, the national average reduction was 46.4%, with the greatest reduction in the Northeast (55.4%). The region still has the highest rate, but the difference in relation to the South dropped from 2.5 in 1990, to twice, in 2005.

An evaluation of the performance of 60 developing countries indicated that Brazil ranks among the seven countries that have the conditions to reach the target set for this Goal - together with Bangladesh, Egypt, Mexico, Indonesia, Philippines and Nepal<sup>1</sup>. Moreover, it is estimated that Brazil will have, in 2015, the second lowest child mortality rate among the nations analyzed in the survey.

## Infant mortality falls, but Northeast's rate is twice as high as that of the South

Infant mortality (children under 1 year of age) also fell significantly in the period. This indicator began to be collected with a more precise technique in 1996, when there were advances in the records of live births in the country (see box 1). The national infant mortality rate, which was of 33.7 per thousand live births in 1996, fell to 21.1 in 2005 - a 37.2% drop (see graph 1). Infant mortality dropped in all states in the period and fell more than 40% in Pernambuco, Ceará, Roraima, Rio Grande do Norte and São Paulo. Despite this result, the national rate can be considered high, as compared to developed countries and some Latin American countries, such as Chile and Argentina.

Even with reductions in all states, regional differences are the most concerning factor, and reveal the inequalities in the living conditions of the Brazilian population. In the Northeast (31.6 per thousand live births) and North (25.5), rates were well above those found in the South (13.8), Southeast (14.1) and Mid-West (17.8) regions in 2005 (see graph 1).

The falling trend of the infant mortality rate has been accompanied by impor-

**TABLE 1 • Child mortality – Brazil and Macrorregions, 1990 to 2005 (per thousand live births)**

Year	Brazil	North	Northeast	Southeast	South	Mid-West
1990	53.7	52.9	87.3	36.6	35.2	41.0
1991	50.6	49.9	81.6	34.7	33.3	38.7
1992	47.9	47.2	76.3	33.1	31.5	36.7
1993	45.4	44.7	71.5	31.6	29.9	34.8
1994	43.3	42.5	67.2	30.3	28.4	33.1
1995	41.4	40.6	63.4	29.1	27.0	31.6
1996	39.7	38.9	60.1	28.1	25.8	30.3
1997	38.3	37.4	57.2	27.3	24.7	29.1
1998	37.1	36.2	54.8	26.5	23.7	28.0
1999	36.0	35.0	52.7	25.9	22.8	27.0
2000	32.7	32.1	45.6	22.3	21.2	26.4
2001	31.7	31.1	43.7	21.5	20.4	25.4
2002	30.8	30.2	42.1	20.8	19.7	24.6
2003	30.4	29.5	40.9	20.2	19.1	23.8
2004	29.3	28.9	39.8	19.7	18.5	23.2
2005	28.7	28.3	38.9	19.2	18.0	22.6
<b>Dif. 1990-2005</b>	<b>-46.4</b>	<b>-46.5</b>	<b>-55.4</b>	<b>-47.5</b>	<b>-48.8</b>	<b>-44.8</b>

Source: IBGE, Demographic Census and National Sample Household Survey - 1990 to 2005

tant changes in the composition of the various causes of death among children under 1 year of age. Until the eighties, the main causes of death were related to transmissible diseases, many of which resulting from environmental and social conditions, as well as from lower coverage of basic health care services.

In the last years, the primary cause of death of children in this age bracket has been perinatal affections, which are linked to factors associated with the child's conditions at birth and the quality of care provided during pregnancy and childbirth. Infectious diseases accounted for 11.2% of proportional mortality in 1996. In 2005, the figure dropped to 7.1%. On the other hand, the proportion of deaths due to perinatal affections increased from 49.7% to 57.5% in the same period (see graph 2).

Infant mortality is usually divided into three periods: early neonatal (0 to 6 days), late neonatal (7 to 27 days) and post-neonatal (28 days to 11 months). In recent years, the infant mortality rate has fallen mainly because of reduced post-neonatal mortality, a consequence of the improvement of basic care provided to infants and of factors associated to the environment (particularly water and sanitation). Thus, the participation of the other two neonatal components has become proportionally greater in the mortality rate as a whole. Reducing their participation depends on improving the care provided to mothers during pregnancy and childbirth until the post-partum period, as well as on the quality of care provided to newborns under special risk conditions.

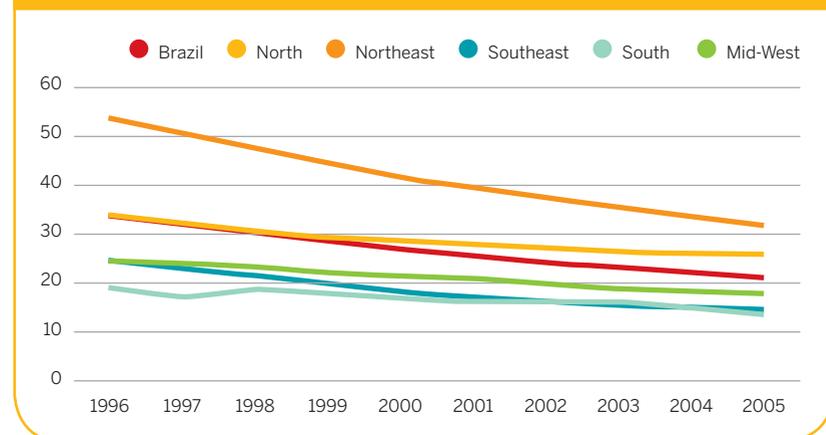
In the last ten years, the living conditions of Brazilians have improved, and the population's access to basic health care services has expanded, thanks to the increased coverage of the Unified Health System - SUS (See, in the attached CD, this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of the Target).

As consequence of these factors, there

has been a decrease of deaths in the post-neonatal period and a greater share of deaths in the neonatal period: early neonatal mortality is currently responsible for 51.2% of the deaths of children under 1 year of age (see graph 3). This situation indicates that, even with the population's increased access to health services under the SUS, qualitative advances are needed in the care provided during pregnancy, childbirth, and to the newborn.

Currently, infant mortality reduction policies in Brazil prioritize the first 27

**GRAPH 1 • Evolution of infant mortality – Brazil and Macrorregions, 1996 to 2005**



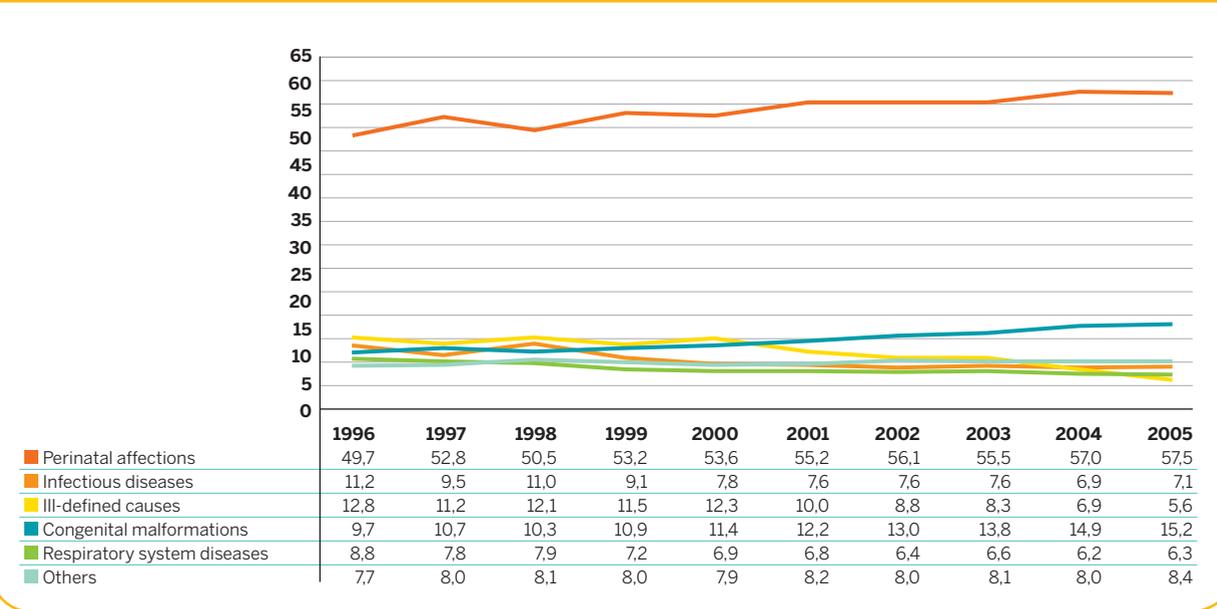
Source: RIPS/A

### BOX 1 • Brazil improves information systems on mortality and on live births

The Mortality Information System (SIM) and the Information System on Live Births (Sinasc) evolved significantly, both in terms of coverage and quality of the data collected. SIM covered, in 2005, 87.4% of the total of deaths, reflecting an increase of 12.7% in comparison with 1991. Among the regions, the Southeast stands out, with a 38.6% increase in coverage in the period. The coverage

of Sinasc increased 35% between 1996 and 2005.

The reduction of ill-defined causes of death indicates that there has been an improvement in SIM. In 1996, cause of death was not indicated precisely in 15.1% of the records; in 2005, the proportion fell to 10.6%. In relation to children under 1 year of age, the reduction of ill-defined causes was of 56% in the same period.

**GRAPH 2 •** Evolution of proportional mortality of children under 1 year, by causes of death – Brazil, 1996 to 2005

Source: SVS/MS

*Improvement of living conditions and increased coverage of the Unified Health System (SUS) have reduced post-neonatal mortality*

days of life, as occurs in more developed countries. However, mortality after the 28th day of birth is very high, accounting for 33.1% of the deaths of children under 1 year of age in the country.

Moreover, regional inequalities are greater in post-neonatal mortality. In 2004, in the Northeast, this rate was 2.5 times higher than in the Southeast Region. These data reinforce the need for more effective action on the other determinants of infant mortality.

To improve neonatal care, especially in the less developed regions, the Federal Government created, in 2006, the North-Northeast Network of Perinatal Health, aimed at assessing the quality of work carried out in health care units (See, in the attached CD, *this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Target*). The Network also provides states with consultancy, monitoring and supervision, seeking to support initiatives related to management and organization of neonatal services. Initially, the measure was adopted in

northeastern states; it is currently being implemented in the North Region.

Perinatal affections constitute the main cause of early neonatal mortality in Brazil, accounting for more than 80% of the deaths between 1996 and 2005 (see graph 4). Meanwhile, the proportional distribution of congenital malformations increased 40%, moving from 10% to 14% of the deaths in the same period.

Perinatal affections include complications related to the duration of pregnancy, fetal cardiorespiratory problems, and child-birth traumas, among other causes. High mortality rates due to perinatal affections are associated with low socioeconomic level of the mothers, and with poor maternal care during pregnancy. They are also linked to the care provided to newborns during and after birth. The level of social and economic development of a country contributes to decrease the significance of perinatal affections vis-à-vis other causes of neonatal mortality that rely on more complex preventive measures, such as congenital anomalies.

Perinatal affections are also the main group of mortality causes in the late neonatal stage: they represented 64.7% of the deaths in 1996, and 73.9% in 2005 (see graph 5). Similarly, the participation of congenital malformations increased in the period analyzed, from 13.7% to 17.1% of the deaths. However, death from infectious diseases decreased: from 4.3% in 1996 to 1.3% in 2005.

In the post-neonatal stage, an increased share of deaths from perinatal affections was registered between 1996 and 2005, as well as those caused by congenital malformations, which practically doubled in ten years (see graph 6). The share of deaths due to infectious causes fell from 25.6% to 20.3%, still a relatively high

figure. Deaths from ill-defined causes dropped from 25.3% to 13.6%, but still have significant weight, since they demonstrate the persistence of deaths of children without medical care, especially in the case of death at home.

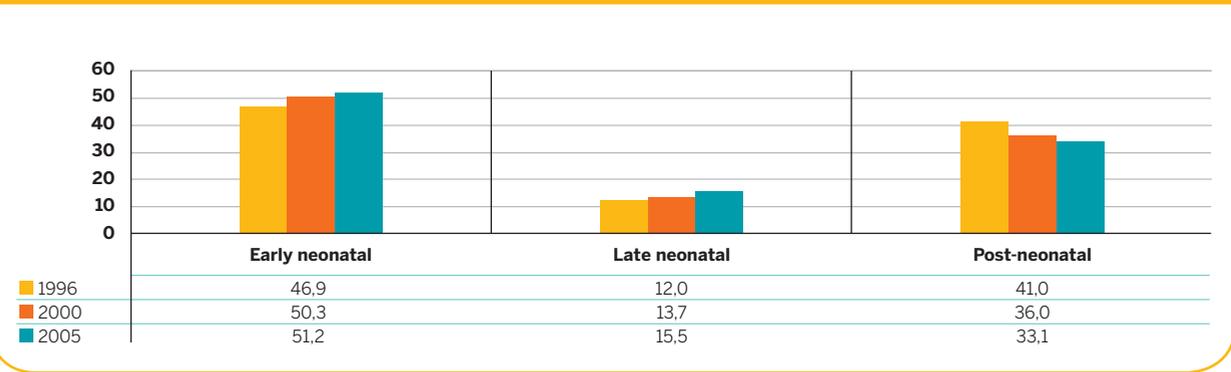
### Improvements in health, environment and education have helped reduce child deaths

The adoption of various actions was crucial to reduce child mortality between 1990 and 2005. Attention should be drawn to the following: increased vaccination coverage of the population and introduction of new vaccines; use of oral rehydration therapy (ORT); increased prenatal care coverage; expansion of health services;

continuous fertility reduction; improved environmental (particularly supply of portable water) and nutritional conditions of the population; and increased schooling rate of mothers.

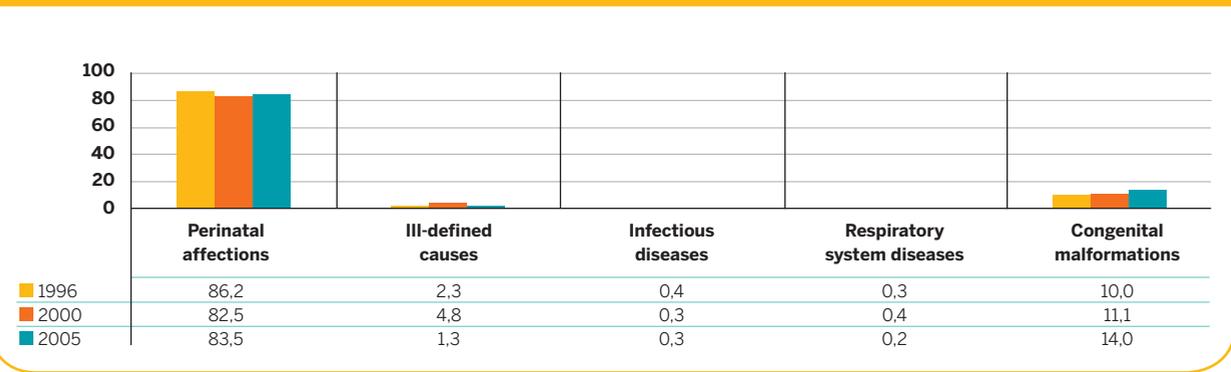
The first four items are associated with the objectives of basic health care, mainly of the Family Health strategy (See, in the attached CD, this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of the Target), which was greatly expanded in the late nineties. A study published in 2006<sup>2</sup> showed that the Family Health Program (PSF) had significant impact in the decrease of infant mortality in Brazil, with a reduction of 4.5% in death rates for every 10% increase in the program's coverage. The average coverage of the program in

**GRAPH 3 •** Percentile distribution of infant deaths, by age groups – Brazil, 1996, 2000 and 2005



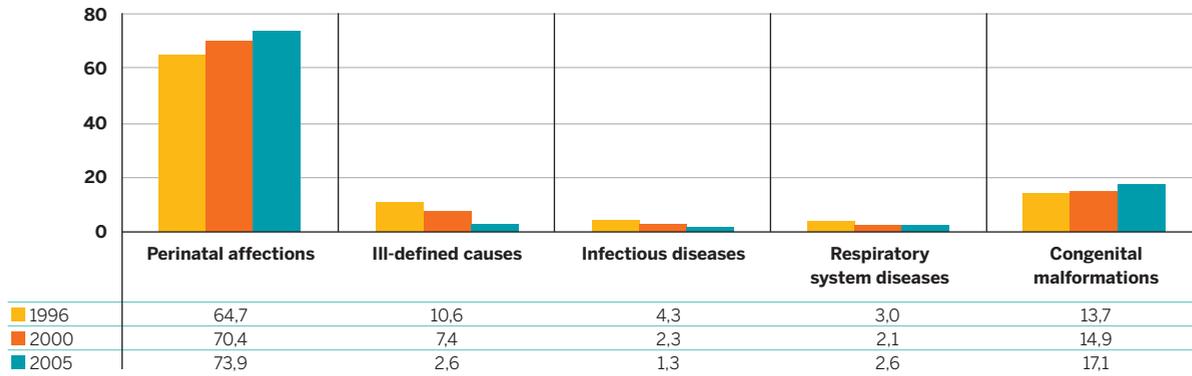
Source: SVS/MS

**GRAPH 4 •** Percentile distribution of early neonatal deaths, by selected causes – Brazil, 1996, 2000 and 2005



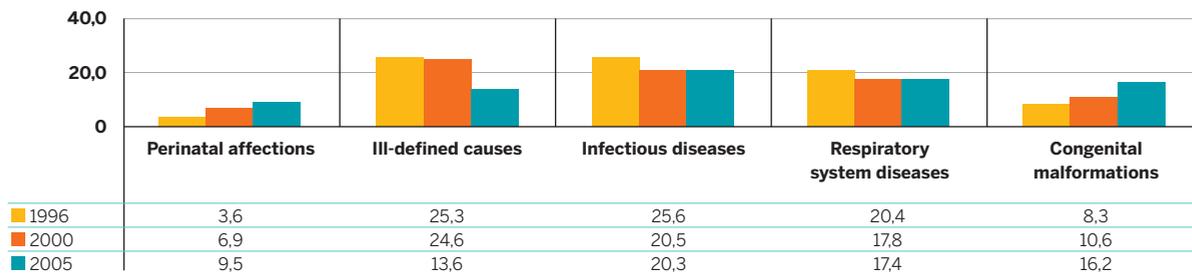
Source: SVS/MS

**GRAPH 5** • Percentage distribution of deaths in the late neonatal period, by selected causes – Brazil, 1996, 2000 and 2005



Source: SVS/MS

**GRAPH 6** • Percentage distribution of deaths in the post-neonatal period, by selected causes – Brazil, 1996, 2000 and 2005



Source: SVS/MS

*For every 10% increase in the coverage of the Family Health Program, infant mortality dropped 4.5%*

municipalities, which was 54.8% in 2002, rose to 62.3% in 2004. In 2005 and 2006, there was a 10% increase in the actions of the Family Health Program, and these actions concentrated in lower-income municipalities, where the highest infant mortality rates are found.

Vaccination coverage in Brazil has remained above 95% for some years, and even for vaccines recently introduced, the coverage rate is quite high. The number of prenatal care appointments has been increasing steadily, while the share of pregnant women who had no prenatal appointments fell 54% between 1999 and 2004. However, increased prenatal coverage was not accompanied by a significant improvement in the quality of care,

which has impacts in the conditions at birth. For instance, in Brazil there is still a high proportion of premature births and low birth weight newborns.

Another contribution to the fall of infant mortality and child mortality was the increase in the supply of drinking water and sewage collection to the population. In 2005, 92% of the people who lived in urban areas relied on water supply services through a general network, and 77.3% had sewage collection systems connected to the general network or septic tanks. In addition, there was an estimated 30% reduction in the proportion of mothers with less than one year of schooling between 1999 and 2004.

### Infectious diseases affect indigenous children 3 times more than other children

The situation of infant mortality per cause according to child race/color shows significant inequality between population groups (see graph 7). Despite perinatal affections also being the main cause of mortality of indigenous children, its proportion is much lower than that observed among white children. In 2005, among white children, perinatal affections represented 54.7% of the deaths, while among indigenous children they accounted for 31% of the deaths.

Infectious diseases were three times more frequent among indigenous children compared to whites. Infections of the respiratory system, the third most frequent cause of death, also kills more among indigenous children. In general, it is clear that in this population group preventable causes of death continue to have significant weight, which requires the intensification of efforts to change this situation.

The indigenous population has its own health care subsystem, organized in 34 Special Indigenous Health Districts, integrated with the SUS. The Federal Government has also been implementing the integration of health care with food security policies – targeting especially the mothers of newborns. The Indigenous Nutrition Surveillance System (Sisvan) allows nutritional monitoring of children living in indigenous villages. In 2006, the National Health Foundation (Funasa) created a task force for emergency situations. Initiatives such as these have contributed to reduce infant mortality in indigenous communities.

<sup>1</sup> Bryce, J.; Terreri N.; Victora CG et al. “Countdown to 2015: Tracking Intervention Coverage for Child Survival.” *Lancet* 23; 368(9541):1067-76, Sep. 2006.

<sup>2</sup> Macinko, J.; Guanais, FC.; Marinho, MFS. “Evaluation of the Impact of the Family Health Program on Infant Mortality in Brazil, 1990–2002.” *Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health*, 60:13-19, 2006.

**GRAPH 7** • Proportional mortality of children under 1 year of age, by race/color, according to groups of causes – Brazil, 2005



Fonte: SVS/MS

# MDG 4 • REDUCE CHILD MORTALITY

## MAIN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

UNIFIED HEALTH SYSTEM (SUS)

- a.** Family Health Strategy – PSF
- b.** Community Health Agents Program – PACS
- c.** National Pact for the Reduction of Maternal and Neonatal Mortality
- d.** Agenda of Commitments for Comprehensive Health of Children and Reduction of Child Mortality
- e.** National Immunization Program – PNI

## TARGET 5

(UN)

REDUCE BY TWO-THIRDS, BETWEEN 1990 AND 2015, THE UNDER-FIVE MORTALITY RATE

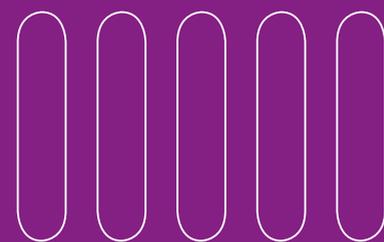


# GOAL 4





# IMPROVE MATERNAL HEALTH



# 5

## MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL

**TARGET 6** • REDUCE BY THREE-QUARTERS, BETWEEN 1990 AND 2015, THE MATERNAL MORTALITY RATE.

**TARGET 6A (BRAZILIAN)** • PROMOTE, IN THE NETWORK OF THE UNIFIED HEALTH SYSTEM (SUS), UNIVERSAL COVERAGE OF SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH ACTIONS BY 2015

**TARGET 6B (BRAZILIAN)** • BY 2015, CONTAIN THE GROWTH OF MORTALITY BY BREAST AND CERVICAL CANCER, REVERSING THE CURRENT TREND

# NUMBER OF MATERNAL DEATHS DROPS, BUT UNDERREPORTING IS STILL VERY HIGH

The maternal mortality ratio dropped from 61.2 to 53.4 deaths per 100 thousand live births between 1997 and 2005 (see table 1). This reduction of 12.7% should be viewed with caution, since there is evidence that maternal mortality is underreported in the country, which hinders the collection of information and mapping of deaths, especially in the less developed regions<sup>1</sup>.

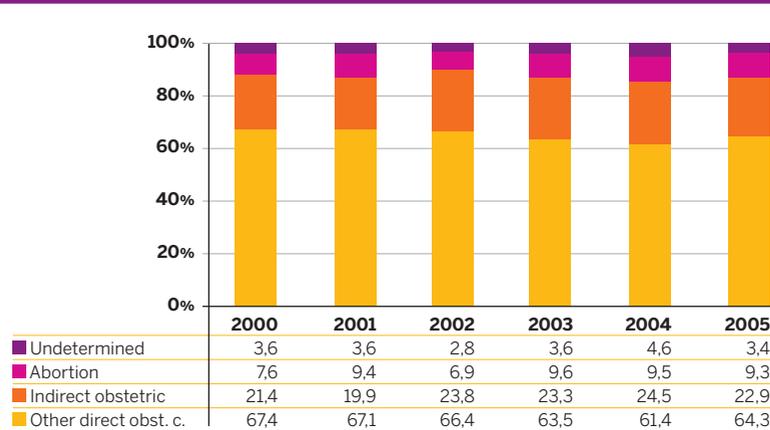
In an effort to reduce underreporting and to identify causes of death more precisely, new Maternal Mortality Committees, created in 1998 to investigate the cause of the deaths, are being implemented. The number of committees grew from 495 in 2001, to 951 in 2005; the largest increase was in the Northeast Region.

The main causes of maternal mortality in the country are those classified as direct causes – that is, relating to complications arising during pregnancy, childbirth or puerperium (up to 42 days after childbirth) – deriving from interventions, omissions, incorrect treatment or from a chain of events associated with any one of these factors. Indirect causes, typical of countries with low mortality ratios, result from preexisting diseases or diseases developed during pregnancy, aggravated by other aspects, such as circulatory and respiratory problems.

In 2005, direct obstetric causes, including abortion, caused 73.6% of maternal deaths in the country (see graph 1). Hypertensive disorders in pregnancy, childbirth and puerperium<sup>2</sup> accounted for 32.9% of these cases; abortion, 9.3%. Indirect obstetric causes totaled 22.9% of the maternal deaths recorded in 2005.

The larger share of direct causes clearly indicates the challenge to be tackled so as to ensure comprehensive and quality health care for women. In relation to the reproductive cycle, comprehensive care should include, among other measures, adequate prenatal care, referral of risk pregnancies to specialized services, adequate assistance during childbirth and post-partum by a health unit, tre-

**GRAPH 1** • Proportion of maternal deaths, according to group of causes – Brazil, 2000 to 2005 (in %)



Source: SVS/MS

atment of obstetric emergencies, and family planning actions.

In Brazil, almost all childbirths take place in hospitals, with the assistance of health professionals (see table 2). The persisting problems related to maternal mortality led the Federal Government to develop an innovative action of direct intervention in 457 maternity wards, seeking to reduce maternal and neonatal mortality through changes of paradigms in the health care provided to women and newborns. This initiative is one of the priority actions of the National Pact for Reduction of Mortality and Neonatal Maternal (see, in the attached CD, this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of the Target). Its aim is to strengthen technical capacity of professionals in the largest maternity wards of the country for the implementation of strategies to humanize obstetric and neonatal care, and for incorporation of new practices.

The country still has one of the highest rates of Caesarean sections. In relation to the total of childbirths, there was an increase of 38.6%, in 2002, to 43.3%, in 2005, according to the National Information System on Live Births (Sinasc). This type of childbirth exposes women to greater risk of accidental injuries, reactions to anesthesia, infections, and death. The recommendation of the World Health Organization (WHO) is that the proportion of Caesarean sections should account for approximately 15% of total childbirths and the procedure should only be carried out in case of risk for both the mother and the baby. According to a survey by the National Agency of Supplementary Health (ANS), based on information from the supplementary health sector, there is a huge distortion in this aspect among users of health plans and insurance. While in the SUS the proportion of Caesarean sections is around 28%, in the health plans and insurance segment they account for 80% of the total number of childbirths.

In order to reduce this abusive practice

**TABLE 1 • Maternal mortality ratio– Brazil and Macrorregions, 1997 to 2005 (per 100 thousand live births)**

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
<b>Brazil</b>	<b>61,2</b>	<b>64,8</b>	<b>57,3</b>	<b>52,4</b>	<b>50,7</b>	<b>54,2</b>	<b>52,1</b>	<b>54,4</b>	<b>53,4</b>
North	53,1	57,1	63,1	62,3	49,8	53,1	57,2	53,1	57,5
Northeast	54,9	55,9	56,3	57,7	57,4	61,4	62,9	63,8	67,0
Southeast	64,7	70,1	55,2	48,4	44,4	46,4	42,2	44,4	40,7
South	71,5	76,2	62,1	53,4	52,6	57,6	51,6	59,0	55,1
Midwest	53,3	54,8	57,2	39,1	54,1	60,7	53,5	61,8	54,5

Source: SVS/MS

and change the patterns of childbirth care, the Federal Government launched, on the 30th of May, the National Campaign to Encourage Normal Childbirth and Reduce Unnecessary Caesarean Sections. This campaign was also the result of a partnership with the National Agency of Supplementary Health, seeking to show health plans and insurance users the benefits of normal childbirth, and as an additional measure of qualification of the care provided to women in the SUS.

Appropriate prenatal care allows timely identification of situations of risk for the mother and the fetus. The technical standards of Humanized Prenatal and Puerperium Care, designed by the Federal Government and distributed to SUS services, recommend at least six prenatal appointments, beginning in the first trimester of pregnancy. The proportion of pregnant women who declared having attended seven or more prenatal appointments went from 49.1% in 2002 to 53.6% in 2005 (see table 3). This increase, which occurred consistently, was accompanied by a reduction of more than 50% in the number of pregnant women who reported that they had not had any prenatal appointments between 1999 and 2005. However, coverage in the North and Northeast Regions is still below 40%, and the gap between these regions and the South and Southeast is not reducing.

The expansion of the Family Health Program (PSF) and the increase of amounts

**TABLE 2 • Proportion of births that take place in hospitals – Brazil and Macrorregions, 2005 (in %)**

Region	Proportion
North	90,8
Northeast	95,3
Southeast	99,1
South	99,0
Midwest	99,3
<b>Total</b>	<b>97,1</b>

Source: SVS/MS

*The proportion of Caesarean sections is 28% in the Unified Health System and 80% in health plans, but WHO recommends 15%*

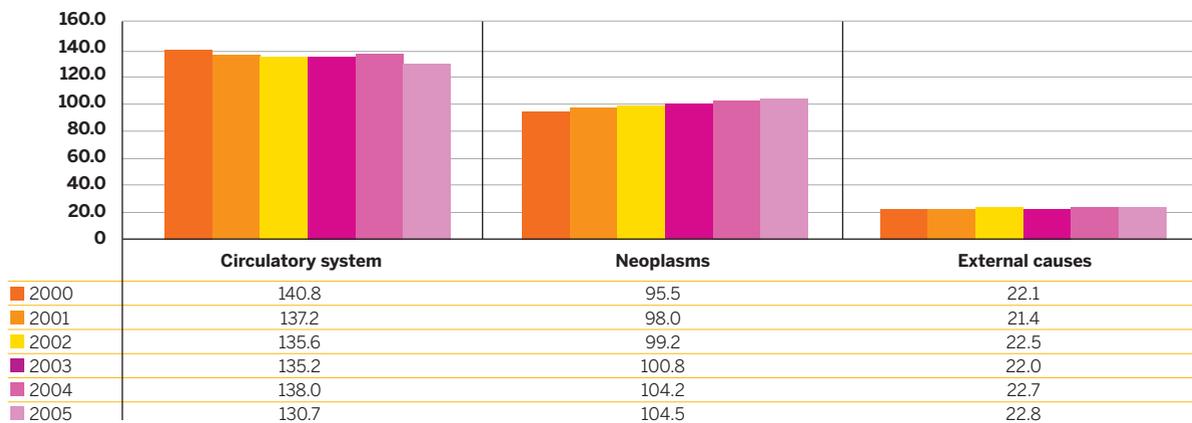
*National Pact  
for Reduction of  
Maternal and  
Neonatal Mortality  
implements  
strategies to  
humanize obstetric  
and neonatal care*

paid as incentives to municipalities for the expansion of prenatal care have been the strategies adopted by the Federal Government to raise the number of pregnant women seeking specialized care (see, in the attached CD, this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of the Target).

**Government launches measures to expand access to contraceptive methods**

The Federal Constitution guarantees the right to family planning, regulated by Law 9.263/96. Therefore, it is the duty of the Public Authority to ensure that the population has information, means, methods and techniques for assistance to conception and contraception. It was in this context that Brazil, in 2005, added a second target to the fifth Millennium Development Goal: the guarantee of universal coverage of sexual and reproductive health actions under the SUS. In October 2006, in the United Nations World Summit, the UN General Assembly also pledged to achieve universal coverage for reproductive health by 2015, which strengthened the decision made by the Brazilian government to expand its actions.

**GRAPH 2 • Mortality rate of women aged 30 to 69 from selected causes – Brazil, 2000-2005 (per 100 thousand women)**



Source: SVS/MS

In 2005, the Federal Government launched the National Policy of Sexual and Reproductive Rights, which envisions the adoption of various family planning actions by 2007, defined on the basis of the document “Sexual and Reproductive Rights: A Government Priority”. The main proposals are to improve health care, improve care in cases of abortion, and intensify the fight against domestic and sexual violence (*see, in the attached CD, this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of the Target*).

A national survey carried out by the Federal Government in June 2005, in which 2,100 people were heard in 131 municipalities of 25 states, revealed that access to family planning methods is still hindered for a large share of interviewees: 42% said that the main problem regarding contraception is the lack of information on contraceptive methods. Other difficulties pointed out by respondents were the lack of collaboration by men with women’s plans (13%), people’s embarrassment in talking about sex (7%), lack of public services for sterilization (9%), and the high price of contraceptives (7%).

Considering survey results, the Brazilian government launched, on the 28th of May this year, a series of measures aimed at increasing the availability of contraceptive methods and access to them, through expanded supply of free contraceptive methods, price reduction of contraceptive pills in pharmacies accredited by the government, and encouraging vasectomy in public health services. In addition to these measures, financing lines have been expanded for maternity wards that render services to the SUS, to enable them to humanize care, improve their physical space, guarantee the presence of a companion, purchase equipment, and additional funds have been invested in an advertising campaign to encourage family planning (*see, in the attached CD, this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of the Target*).

**TABLE 3 • Proportion of coverage of prenatal appointment – Brazil and Macrorregions, 2005 (in %)**

	None	1 yo 3 appointments	4 to 6 appointments	7 or more appointments	Total
North	6,1	17,5	47,2	29,1	100,0
Northeast	3,7	13,4	46,9	36,0	100,0
Southeast	1,4	5,5	25,2	67,9	100,0
South	1,2	5,5	24,9	68,3	100,0
Midwest	1,7	7,4	31,1	59,8	100,0
<b>Brazil</b>	<b>2,6</b>	<b>9,3</b>	<b>34,5</b>	<b>53,6</b>	<b>100,0</b>

Source: SVS/MS

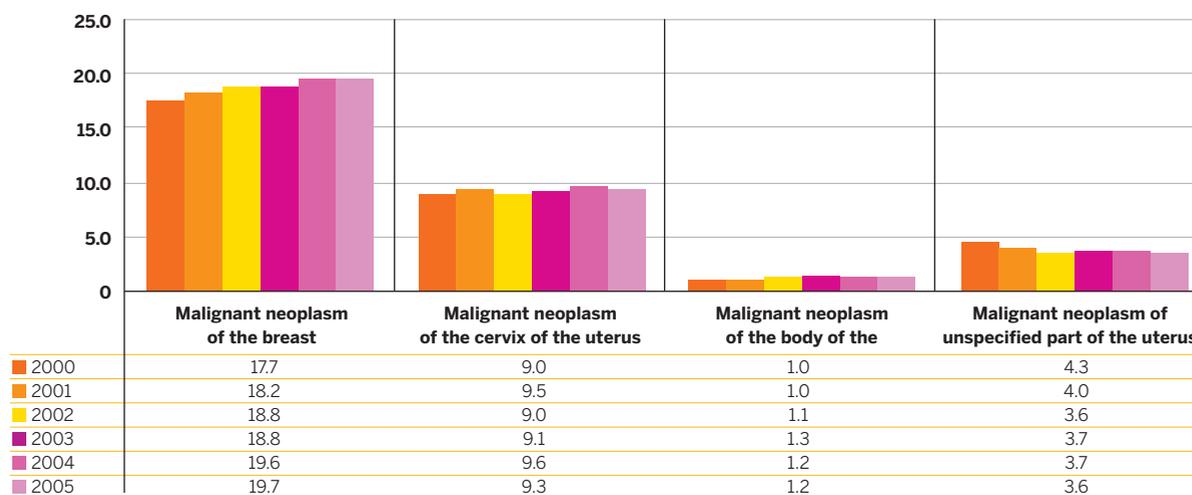
The survey also revealed that a high number of people continue to have children without planning them. Of the total interviewees, 69% said they had children. Out of these, 36% stated that pregnancies were not planned. Another 43% said they had planned all their children, and 21% that they had planned at least one of them. In 2004, the Brazilian public health network carried out 38.276 tubal ligatures and 14.201 vasectomies.

### Government launches action plan for breast and cervical cancer control

A third goal added to the fifth Millennium Development Goal in 2005 by Brazil envisions the reduction of mortality from the two most frequent types of cancer in the female population: breast cancer and cervical cancer.

In 2005, among Brazilian women aged 30 to 69, circulatory system diseases, neoplasms (cancers), and external causes represented 69.4% of the total of deaths with defined causes. From 2000 to 2005, the proportion of deaths from diseases of the circulatory system dropped from 140.8 per 100 thousand women to 130.7 – a 7% decrease. The risk of a woman between 30 and 69 years of age dying from neoplasm increased 9.5%. The risk of death from external causes remained stable in the period (*see graph 2*).

Death from breast cancer increased 11.3%, from 17.7 to 19.7 (*see graph 3*).

**GRAPH 3** • Mortality rate of women aged 30 to 69, according to selected types of neoplasms – Brazil, 2000 to 2005 (per 100 thousand women)

Source: SVS/MS

*Commitment  
of the UN  
General Assembly  
reinforces  
Brazilian decision  
to universalize  
reproductive  
health care*

In the case of cervical cancer the trend is more difficult to verify, since data do not allow a conclusion on whether the higher rate of deaths from cervical and womb neoplasms results from an actual increase or more precise classification, which reduced the proportion of misdiagnosed neoplasms (not-specified share).

Since 1997, specific actions for cervical cancer control are being developed. However, initiatives in this area only show results in the long run. In an attempt to shorten this time and achieve the intended goals, a working group was created, comprised of various government bodies and entities representing civil society, that designed an Action Plan for Cervical and Breast Cancer Control 2005-2007 (*see, in the attached CD, this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of the Target*). This is an innovative measure to incorporate early detection of cervical and breast cancer into the routines of SUS services, breaking away from the tradition of carrying out these actions as part of campaigns.

<sup>1</sup> Research financed by the Ministry of Health on maternal mortality with women aged 10 to 49, carried out in 2002 in Brazilian capitals, showed that this type of death is underreported. The study proposes the application of a 1.4 correction factor on the national maternal mortality rate. With this calculation, the indicator in Brazil would be 73.9 deaths per 100 thousand live births in 2004. In this report, direct estimates were used, to make national information compatible with regional data, for which there is no correction factor available. With regard to the correction factor, see LAURENTI, Ruy; JORGE, Maria Helena Prado de Mello; GOTTlieb, Sabina Léa Davidson. "A mortalidade materna nas capitais brasileiras: algumas características e estimativa de um fator de ajuste". Revista Brasileira de Epidemiologia, São Paulo, v. 7, n. 4, 2004.

<sup>2</sup> Includes pre-existing hypertensive disorders, gestational hypertension, eclampsia and pre-eclampsia (International Classification of Diseases – ICD, categories O11-O16).



# MDG 5 • IMPROVE MATERNAL HEALTH

## MAIN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

### TARGET 6

(UN)

REDUCE BY THREE-QUARTERS, BETWEEN 1990 AND 2015, THE MATERNAL MORTALITY RATE.

### TARGET 6A

(BRAZIL)

PROMOTE, IN THE NETWORK OF THE UNIFIED HEALTH SYSTEM (SUS), UNIVERSAL COVERAGE BY SEXUAL AND REPRODUCTIVE HEALTH ACTIONS BY 2015.

### TARGET 6B

(BRAZIL)

BY 2015, CONTAIN THE GROWTH OF MORTALITY BY BREAST AND CERVICAL CANCER, REVERSING THE CURRENT TREND

#### UNIFIED HEALTH SYSTEM (SUS)

- a. National Policy of Comprehensive Health Care for Women
- b. Program of Humanization of Prenatal and Natal Care – PHPN
- c. National Pact for the Reduction of Maternal and Neonatal Mortality
- d. Action Plan for Control of Breast Cancer and Cervical Cancer in Brazil
- e. National Family Planning Policy
- f. Emergency Medical Care Service – Samu

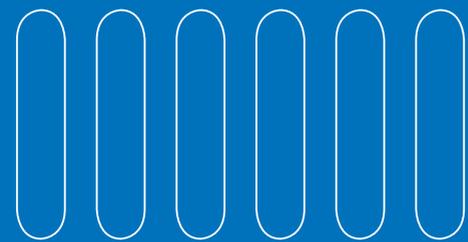


# GOALS 5





# COMBAT HIV/AIDS, MALARIA AND OTHER DISEASES



# 6

## MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL

**TARGET 7** • HAVE HALTED BY 2015 AND BEGUN TO REVERSE THE SPREAD OF HIV/AIDS

**TARGET 8** • HAVE HALTED BY 2015 AND BEGUN TO REVERSE THE INCIDENCE OF MALARIA AND OTHER MAJOR DISEASES

# PROPORTION OF BRAZILIANS WITH HIV HAS BEEN STABLE SINCE 2000

The proportion of Brazilians infected with HIV has not changed significantly in the past years. The Federal Government estimates that, in 2004, there were approximately 600 thousand HIV positive individuals in Brazil, which indicates that the infection has remained stable since 2000. In this period, the prevalence rate (proportion of infected population) among Brazilians aged 15 to 49 remained at 0.6% and 0.8% for men and 0.4% for women. The same trend was observed among young women aged 15 to 24. The rate varied from 0.28%, in 2004, to 0.26%, in 2006.

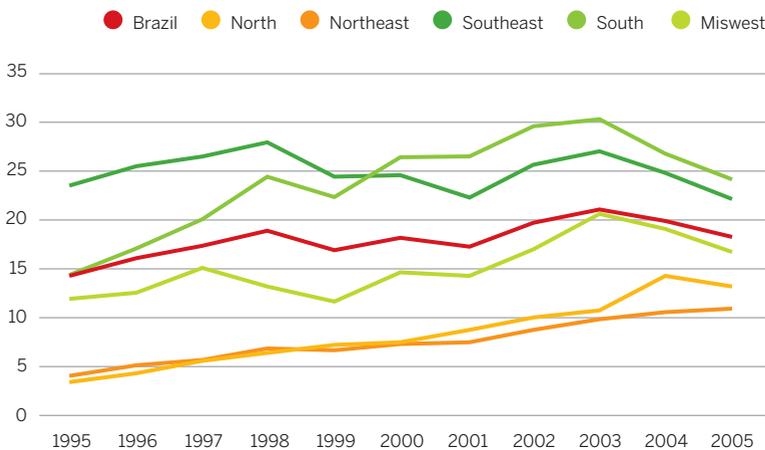
The steady prevalence rate was accompanied by a small variation of incidence (new cases of AIDS). From 1980, when the first case of AIDS was diagnosed in Brazil, until June 2006, the Federal Government identified 433,067 cases of the disease, a figure that excludes carriers of HIV who have not developed AIDS. The annual average incidence, in recent years, was approximately 35 thousand cases.

In 2004, the incidence rate was 19.7 cases per 100 thousand inhabitants. Regional analysis shows that the disease spread more intensely in the regions that usually have the best social indicators. In the South, the incidence was 26.5 cases per 100 thousand inhabitants, while in the Northeast, it was 10.3 cases. Moreover, the Southeast alone concentrates more than 60% of the AIDS cases registered since the outbreak of the epidemic (see graph 1).

## AIDS grows among women aged 40 to 49, but falls among drug users of both sexes

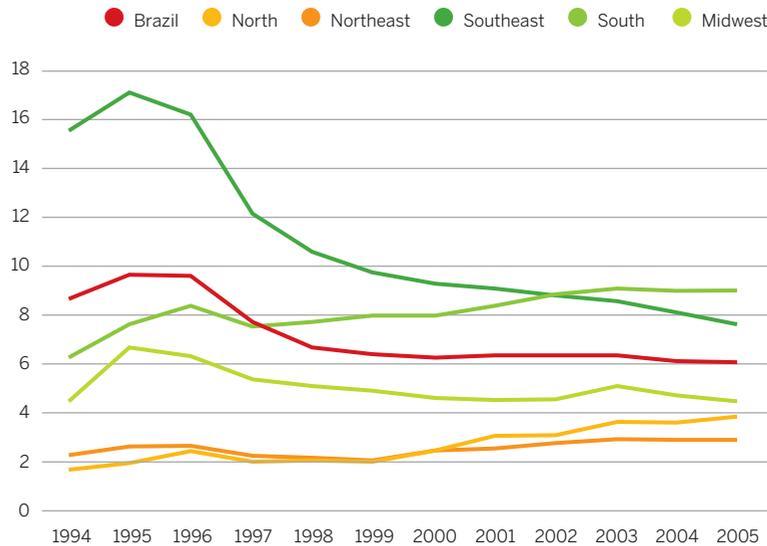
AIDS continues to advance persistently among women aged 40 to 49. The incidence rate in this group, which was 17.9 cases per 100 thousand inhabitants in 1998, jumped to 28.5 in 2004, and remained close to this level in the following year. The spread of the disease in this age bracket is mostly associated to heterosexual transmission - the cause of

**GRAPH 1 •** Incidence rate of AIDS, by year of diagnosis – Brazil and Major Regions, 1995 to 2005 (per 100 thousand inhabitants)



Source: MS/SVS/PN-DST/AIDS

**GRAPH 2 • Rate of mortality from AIDS, per year of death – Brazil and Major Regions, 1994 to 2005 (per 100 thousand inhabitants)**



Source: MS/SVS/PN-DST/AIDS

94.5% of the notified cases of AIDS in 2005 among women aged 13 or more. The good news is that this trend is not confirmed among youths, who experience the opposite: the incidence rate among women aged 13 to 24 has been declining in recent years.

The incidence of AIDS has dropped among one of the most vulnerable groups to the disease: injecting drug users. In 1998, 3,826 cases were registered among male injecting drug users over 13 years of age. In 2005, this number dropped by 70.4%, to 1,133 cases. For female injecting drug users in the same age bracket, the reduction was of 64.7%: from 808 cases, in 1998, to 285, in 2005. The participation of injecting drug users of both sexes in cases notified for individuals above 13 years of age dropped from 16.2% to 7.3% of the total.

### Free treatment helps reduce mortality from AIDS

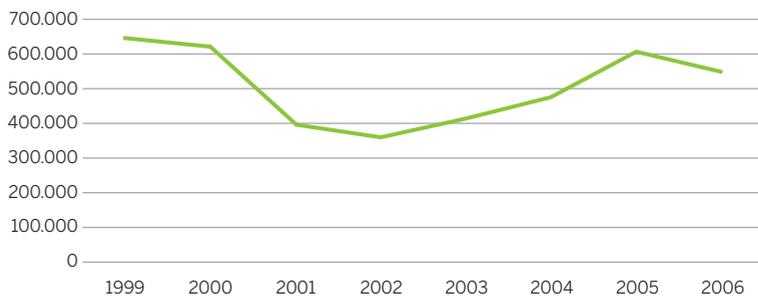
The rate of mortality from AIDS in Bra-

zil has been showing signs of reduction since 1996, when the country introduced the policy of universal access to antiretroviral treatment (Highly Active Anti-Retroviral Therapy Haart). The rate of 9.6 deaths per 100 thousand inhabitants registered in 1996, decreased to 6.0 in 2005. The Southeast presented the most significant reduction in the period. In the North, Northeast and South regions, there was an increase (see graph 2).

Data disaggregation by gender shows that the reduction trend occurred both among men and women although men's mortality rate is double that of women. This improvement is largely due to the actions of the National STD/Aids Program (see, in the attached CD, this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of the Target). Developed by the Brazilian government, this program is mentioned by various international organizations as reference of a successful project in the fight against AIDS.

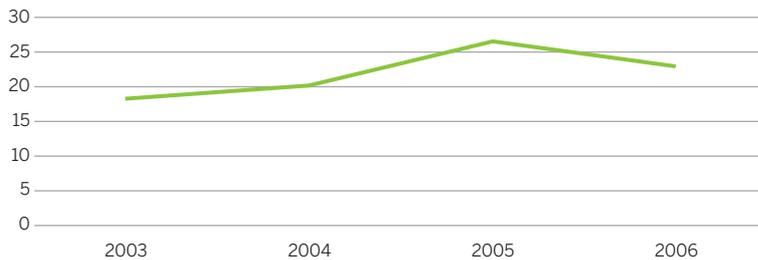
Incidence of AIDS has been dropping among women aged 13 to 24

**GRAPH 3 •** Number of malaria cases – Legal Amazon, 1999 to 2006



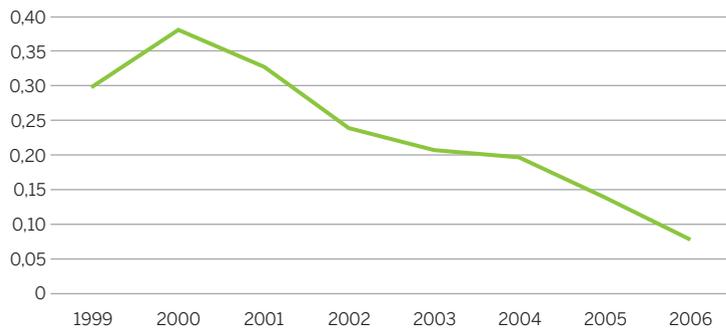
Source: Sivep-Malária/SVS/MS

**GRAPH 4 •** Annual parasitic index (API) of malaria – Legal Amazon, 2003 to 2006 (per thousand inhabitants)



Source: Sivep-Malária/SVS/MS

**GRAPH 5 •** Coefficient of lethality of malaria – Legal Amazon, 1999 to 2006\*, (deaths per thousand cases)



Source: SIM/Datasus/MS and Sivep-Malária/SVS/MS  
\* Partial data

### Use of condom increases among youths of both sexes

The dissemination of prevention methods against sexually transmitted diseases, emphasized by the National STD and AIDS Program and by projects implemented by civil society organizations, has contributed to increase the percentage of the population who protect themselves against sexually transmitted diseases. A survey carried out in 2004 by the Federal Government indicated that 57% of interviewees aged 15 to 24 had used a condom the last time they had sexual intercourse. The proportion is higher among men (68%) than among women (44%). Moreover, 39% of youths declared they use condoms regularly, regardless of partners being steady or casual, and 58% said they use condoms with casual partners - 64% among males and 45% among females.

The increased use of condoms has been confirmed by surveys carried out during selection for military service, which is compulsory for males. Surveys with youths aged 17 to 21 drafted by the Brazilian Army - recruits who submit to the Army's selection commission show that the use of condom with casual partners has been growing steadily in recent years. The proportion was 53% in 1999, and increased to 57% in 2002. The use of condom in the last sexual intercourse rose from 61.5% to 69.3%, in the same period.

The use of preventive methods has also grown in the first sexual intercourse. In 1986, only 9% of youths aged 16 to 25 said they had used some prevention instrument in the first intercourse. The proportion increased to 49% in 1998, and reached 53% in 2004 - without significant differences between genders.

### After three years at high levels, incidence of malaria begins to drop again in 2006

The Legal Amazon (formed by the seven States of the North and part of Mato Grosso and Maranhão) concentrates 99.5% of the malaria cases in Brazil. The inciden-

**TABLE 1 •** Incidence and rate of incidence of tuberculosis per 100 thousand inhabitants (all forms, pulmonary and pulmonary bacilliferous), per year of notification – Brazil, 2000 to 2005

Year	Incidence			%		Rates*		
	New cases	New pulmonary cases	New pulmonary bacilliferous cases	Pulmonary /total	Bacilliferous /total	New cases	New pulmonary cases	New pulmonary bacilliferous cases
2000	69.887	60.293	37.495	86.3	53.7	41.2	35.5	22.1
2001	70.277	60.260	37.227	85.7	53	40.8	35.0	21.6
2002	74.202	63.299	39.236	85.3	52.9	42.5	36.2	22.5
2003	76.519	65.381	40.814	85.4	53.3	43.3	37.0	23.1
2004	75.008	64.095	39.792	85.5	53.1	41.9	35.8	22.2
2005	74.113	63.423	39.898	85.6	53.8	40.2	34.4	21.7

Source: Sinan-TB/SVS/MS

\* Excluded the records on which there is no information on gender, age or code of municipality of residence.

\*\* The number of new pulmonary cases is included in the number of new cases, and the number of new pulmonary bacilliferous cases is included in the number of new pulmonary cases.

ce of the disease in the region dropped between 1999 and 2002, when less than 350 thousand cases were registered. This decline was interrupted in 2003, and the trend that was only reversed in 2006, when incidence began to drop again. Nevertheless, this year, about 540 thousand cases were registered (see graph 3).

Between 2003 and 2006, the annual parasitic index (API) of malaria in the Legal Amazon ranged from 18.3 to 26.6 cases per thousand inhabitants. The indicator, used to measure transmission intensity, increased from 2003 to 2005, but fell again in 2006, when 22.9 cases per thousand inhabitants were registered (see graph 4).

Out of the nine States that comprise the Legal Amazon, four Amazon, Rondônia, Pará and Acre accounted for 87.9% of the malaria cases reported in the region in 2006. Aspects such as disordered occupation of the urban space can explain, at least partially, this strong concentration of the disease. In capital cities such as Manaus (AM) and Porto Velho (RO), extensive urban agglomerations in peripheral areas, where housing conditions are generally poor, are a favorable environment for the spread of the disease.

Municipal data on malaria reinforce the analysis: the two capitals concentrated 14.2% of the cases registered in

the Amazon region in 2006. Despite the high number of cases, Manaus and Porto Velho did not present the highest incidence rates. The Alto Juruá region in Acre, accounted for 14.3% of reports of the disease in that same year.

The increase of the Network for Diagnosis of Malaria in the Legal Amazon expanded access to treatment and helped reduce the number of severe cases (see, in the attached CD, this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of the Target). In 2006, 56.2% of infected people were tested less than 48 hours after the onset of symptoms. This timelier provision of medical care allowed a significant reduction of mortality as a result of malaria (see graph 5).

### Rate of incidence of tuberculosis is falling, but cure among HIV-positives is still incipient

After a fast increase between 2000 and 2003, the incidence rate of tuberculosis has been falling in Brazil<sup>1</sup>. The disease affected approximately 40 people per 100 thousand inhabitants in 2005 (see table 1). Despite this reduction trend, the proportion of patients with tuberculosis of the bacilliferous pulmonary type (the contagious form) remains above 50%, at the same level of the previous years - a pulmonary patient, if not treated, can infect countless others in a year.

*Death from AIDS dropped among men and women*

*Timely provision of care allowed significant drop in mortality from malaria*

Most new cases of tuberculosis in 2005 were registered in the Southeast (45.9%) and in the Northeast (29.4%), regions that have lead transmission in the last five years. In 2005, 75% of cases, of all tuberculosis forms, were cured (excluding those without information). As in previous years, the proportion of cure of new cases of tuberculosis among HIV-positive patients was low (42.4%), as it was for patients who resumed treatment after abandoning it (34.1%).

The factors that contribute to the dissemination of tuberculosis include incorrect use of medicines<sup>2</sup>, high infecting capacity of carriers, and large agglomerations in urban centers, associated with precarious sanitary conditions.

The recent fall of the incidence of tuberculosis was accompanied by a reduction of mortality from this disease. Between 2000 and 2005, the percentage of deaths where tuberculosis was the basic cause decreased significantly, particularly in the Southeast, South and North regions (see graph 6). Despite the declining trend, the association of tuberculosis with the death of patients with other diseases is still high: tuberculosis was a cause associated with around 14% of the deaths

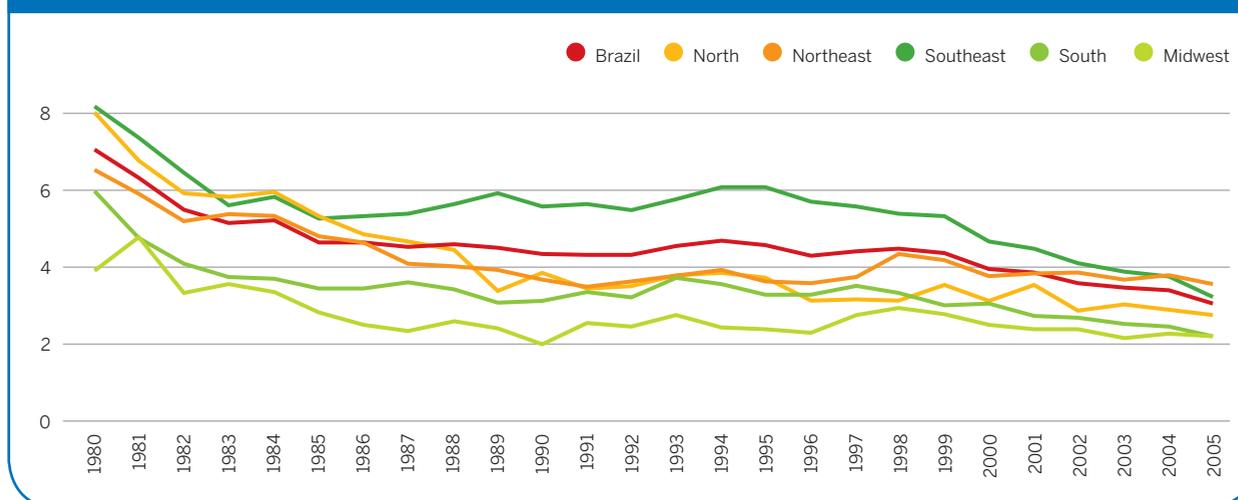
from AIDS between 2002 and 2005.

The National Program Against Tuberculosis, which develops initiatives to expand access to diagnosis and treatment, has been a determinant in the reduction of the number of deaths as a result of the infection (see, in the attached CD, this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of the Target). Moreover, other actions undertaken by municipal and state governments have helped reduce mortality. In the so-called priority municipalities (that concentrate 75% of tuberculosis cases in Brazil), for example, the coverage of the Observed Treatment increased from 7%, in 2000, to 81.2%, in 2006.

<sup>1</sup>The previous reports also included progress in the control of Hansen's disease. However, in this report, leprosy was not included because the methodology used to calculate indicators is being reviewed.

<sup>2</sup>Some patients do not take the medication as prescribed (in the indicated doses, dosage and duration). Incorrect use of the medication leads to the emergence of varieties of the bacillus that are more resistant to the effect of the drugs.

**GRAPH 6 •** Coefficients of mortality from tuberculosis – Brazil and Major Regions, 1980 to 2005 (per 100 thousand inhabitants)



Source: SIM/DASIS/SVS/MS



# MDG 6 • COMBAT HIV/AIDS, MALARIA AND OTHER DISEASES

## MAIN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

- a. National STD/Aids Program
- b. National Malaria Control Program - PNCM
- c. National Tuberculosis Control Program
- d. National Program for Hansen's disease elimination
- e. Pension for People Affected by Leprosy

### TARGET 7

(UN)

HAVE HALTED  
BY 2015 AND  
BEGUN TO REVERSE  
THE SPREAD  
OF HIV/AIDS



# GOAL 6



# MDG 6 • COMBAT HIV/AIDS, MALARIA AND OTHER DISEASES

## MAIN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

### TARGET 8

(UN)

HAVE HALTED BY 2015 AND BEGUN TO REVERSE THE INCIDENCE OF MALARIA AND OTHER MAJOR DISEASES

### TARGET 8A

(BRAZIL)

BY 2015, HAVE REDUCED THE INCIDENCE OF MALARIA AND TUBERCULOSIS

### TARGET 8B

(BRAZIL)

BY 2010, HAVE ELIMINATED LEPROSY

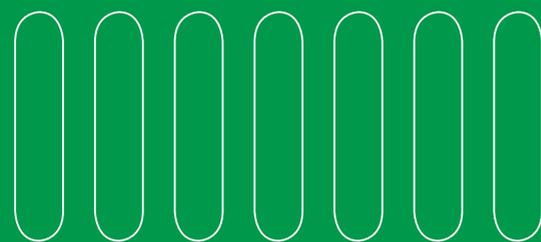
- a. STD/Aids Program
- b. National Malaria Control Program - PNCM
- c. National Tuberculosis Control Program
- d. National Program for Elimination of Leprosy
- e. Pension for People Affected by Leprosy



# GOAL 6



# ENSURE ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY



# 7

## MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL

**TARGET 9** • INTEGRATE THE PRINCIPLES OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT INTO COUNTRY POLICIES AND PROGRAMMES AND REVERSE THE LOSS OF ENVIRONMENTAL RESOURCES

**TARGET 10** • HALVE, BY 2015, THE PROPORTION OF PEOPLE WITHOUT SUSTAINABLE ACCESS TO SAFE DRINKING WATER AND BASIC SANITATION

**TARGET 11** • HAVE ACHIEVED BY 2020 A SIGNIFICANT IMPROVEMENT IN THE LIVES OF AT LEAST 100 MILLION SLUM DWELLERS

# PROTECTED AREA EXPANDS AND DEFORESTATION IN THE AMAZON DECREASES AGAIN AFTER SEVEN YEARS

In order to monitor such a broad theme such as environmental sustainability, the seventh Millennium Development Goal, whose construction was founded on the international discussions on environment and human settlements that took place during the Rio 92 and Habitat II conferences, established three targets to be assessed by eight indicators. This monitoring structure encompasses issues more directly related to the environment, such as deforestation, conservation of biodiversity and global warming, as well as aspects related to quality of life in human settlements, such as adequate access to water, sanitation and housing.

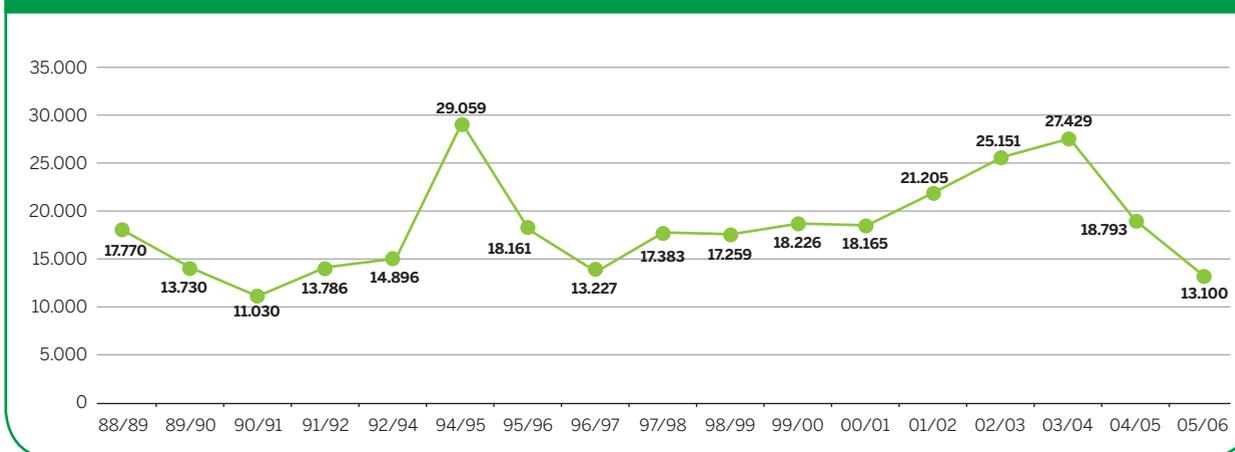
The first indicator proposed by the UN to monitor target 9 (integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs and reverse the loss of environmental resources) is the proportion of the domestic territory covered by forests, according to the definition of forests adopted by the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)<sup>1</sup>. In Brazil, the area covered by native forests comprises approximately 4.6 million square kilometers, which correspond to 54.2% of the national territory (see table 1). The forests are mainly concentrated in the Amazon (74%), the Cerrado (16.3%), and Atlantic Rainforest (5%).

TABLE 1 • Native forest cover, according to biomes – Brazil, 2002

Biome	Total Area* (km <sup>2</sup> )	Forest Cover** (km <sup>2</sup> )	Forest Cover (%)	Share of total of forests (%)
Amazon	4,196,943	3,416,391	80.8	74.0
Atlantic Rainforest	1,110,182	230,900	21.8	5.0
Cerrado	2,036,448	751,943	36.7	16.3
Pantanal	150,355	7,662	5.1	0.1
Caatinga	844,453	201,428	24.3	4.4
Pampa	176,496	9,591	5.4	0.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>8,514,877</b>	<b>4,617,915</b>	<b>54.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Sources: IBGE/MMA, 2004. Map of Brazilian Biomes; b) MMA, 2007. Maps of Native Plant Coverage of Brazilian Biomes

GRAPH 1 • Deforestation in the Brazilian Legal Amazon, 1988 to 2006 (km<sup>2</sup>/per year)



Source: MMA, based on PRODES data - National Space Research Institute (Inpe), 2007

## BOX 1 • Brazilian Continental Biomes

The 2004 Map of Brazilian Biomes shows six continental biomes: the Amazon, *Cerrado*, *Caatinga*, Atlantic Rainforest, *Pantanal* and *Pampa*. The survey defines biome as “a community of living organisms (vegetal and animal) consisting of groupings of contiguous and identifiable types of vegetation at a regional scale, with similar geo-climatic conditions and shared history of changes, which results in its own biological diversity”. The classification of biomes takes into account the most popular terminology related to phytogeography (geographic distribution of vegetation) in Brazil. The study reveals that all biomes present changes caused by human activities.

The **Amazon**, with its 4.2 million square kilometers, covers almost half (49.3%) of the national territory. The dense ombrophilous forest – characterized by green, dense vegetation, up to 15 meters tall, high temperatures and intense rainfall levels – is the predominant vegetation and covers 41.7% of this biome. Native forest and non-forest vegetation cover approximately 85% of the region, while the areas affected by human activities correspond to 9.5%.

The **Cerrado**, known as the Brazilian savannah, covers approximately 2 million square kilometers (23.9% of the Brazilian territory). Intense expansion of livestock and farming activities in this biome caused the elimination of 39% of its native vegetation cover and the fragmentation of most of its habitats, which may have caused great loss of biodiversity.

The **Atlantic Rainforest**, with little more than 1 million square kilometers, is the third largest biome in Brazil, covering 13% of the domestic territory. It is the major forest formation outside the Amazon, mainly composed of dense ombrophilous forests and semi-deciduous seasonal

forests – 20% to 50% of the trees lose their leaves in the dry period. The Atlantic Rainforest shelters the country’s most heavily populated cities, and is the Brazilian biome that most lost its original features – human activities affected 71% of its extension. Similarly to the *Cerrado*, the loss and fragmentation of habitats may also have caused great loss of biodiversity.

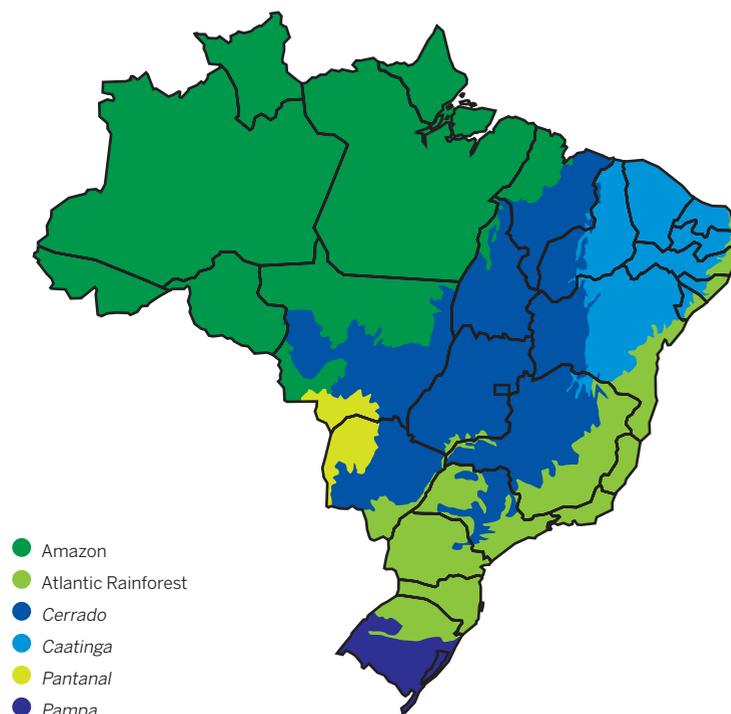
The **Caatinga** is the only biome exclusive to Brazil. It covers 844.5 thousand square kilometers and is mainly characterized by arid climate and steppe savannah type vegetation, with a deciduous and thorny structure. Native forest and non-forest formations account for almost

63% of this biome.

The **Pampas** comprise the southern half of Rio Grande do Sul, covering approximately 176.5 thousand square kilometers, where characteristic natural field landscapes predominate. The area affected by human activities corresponds to 48.7% of the total.

The **Pantanal** is the largest continuous humid area in the world, covering approximately 150 thousand square kilometers. This biome is relatively well preserved, maintaining 86.8% of native vegetation cover, where non-forest architectures predominate. Human activities, which have affected 11.5% of this biome, are mainly consisted of pastures.

MAP 1 • Brazilian Continental Biomes



Source: IBGE/MMA, 2004. Map of Brazilian Biomes

*Annual deforestation in the Amazon decreased from 29 thousand square kilometers in 1994 to 13 thousand in 2006*

Deforestation in the Legal Amazon has been regularly monitored by the Brazilian government<sup>2</sup>. Data show that the peak of deforestation in the region occurred between 1994 and 1995, with destruction of more than 29 thousand square kilometers of forests. After a brief deceleration in 1996 and 1997, tree-cutting followed an upward trend up to 2004, when deforestation fell significantly. Preliminary data for 2005/2006 indi-

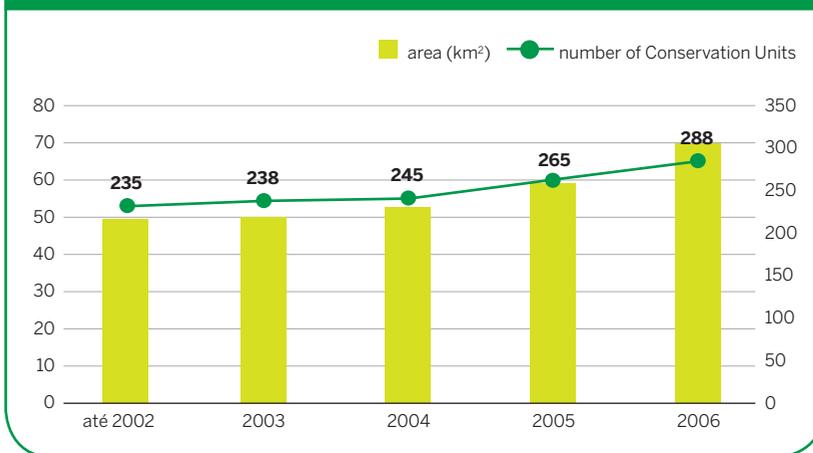
cate deforestation of around 13 thousand square kilometers.

The reduction of the deforested area can be attributed, to a great extent, to the actions undertaken by the Brazilian government under the Action Plan for Deforestation Prevention and Control in the Legal Amazon (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal). However, even with the recent drop, it is important to observe that total deforestation in the last 20 years was 300 thousand square kilometers – an area larger than the states of Rio Grande do Sul and Sergipe together – and the area deforested every year in the Legal Amazon is still very large.

The demarcation of protected areas is an important step to guarantee the conservation of biomes and biological diversity. Brazil has also been using this mechanism to fight deforestation (see graph 2). Protection of biodiversity has been one of the priorities of the Brazilian government, which has recently adopted a set of national goals related to biodiversity for 2010, through of Conabio Resolution n.3, dated December 2006. In 2006, there were 288 federal conservation units managed by Ibama, according to the National System of Nature Conservation Units (Snuac). Altogether, these units comprised 696 thousand square kilometers – an area larger than the state of Minas Gerais. Out of these, 331 thousand are fully protected areas and 365 thousand allow sustainable use of the forest<sup>3</sup> (see Box 2). Most of the federal conservation units are comprised of national parks and forests, which account for 219 thousand square kilometers (31.5% of the total) and 168 thousand square kilometers (24.2%) respectively. Extractivist reserves cover 98 thousand square kilometers (14.7% of the total area).

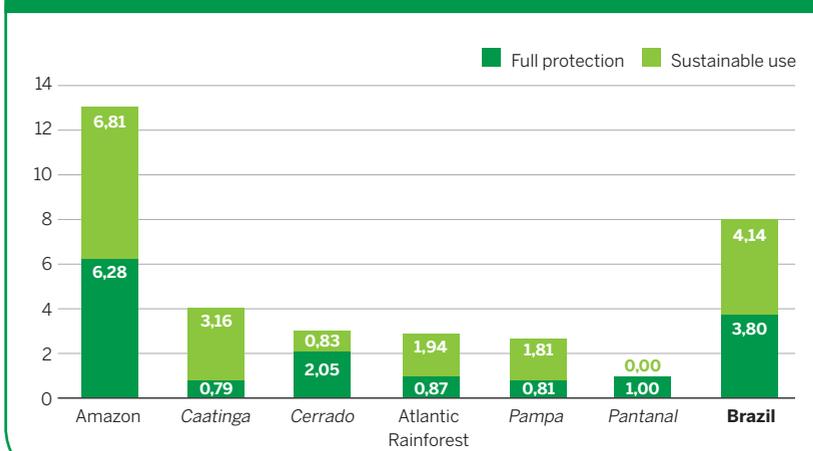
The most protected Brazilian biome is the Amazon, with 13.1% of its territory in federal conservation units. The percentage of protected areas in the other biomes is very small - for example, it does

**GRAPH 2 • Federal conservation units – Brazil, 2002 to 2006**



Source: MMA, National Registry for Conservation Units

**GRAPH 3 • Percentage of biomes protected by federal conservation units – Brazil, 2006**



Source: MMA, National Registry for Conservation Units

## BOX 2 • Brazilian conservation units: the difference between full protection and sustainable management

Article 2 of Law 9.985/00, which created the National System of Nature Conservation Units (SNUC), divides Brazilian conservation units in two major groups: those for full protection and those for sustainable use.

**Full protection** conservation units are intended to maintain ecosystems free of any change caused by human interference. In these areas, only indirect use of natural resources is allowed, through educational, scientific and leisure activities.

**Sustainable use** conservation units are aimed at the use of the environment in such a way as to ensure renewable environmental resources and lasting ecological processes. In this model, management must necessarily preserve biodiversity and other ecological attributes, and should be carried out in a socially fair and economically feasible manner. The main aim of these units is to make nature conservation compatible with sustainable use of natural resources. The uses and activities allowed in each management category are related to the guidelines contained in the management plan of each conservation unit. The Box beside shows the types of conservation units in the country.

### Characteristics of Brazilian conservation units, by category

	Conservation Unit	Description
<b>Full Protection Units</b>	Ecological Station (1)	Aimed at nature preservation and scientific research.
	Biological Reserve (1)	Aimed at full protection of the fauna, flora, and other natural features, without direct human interference or environmental change, except measures for reclaiming altered ecosystems and management actions to recover and preserve the natural balance, biological diversity, and natural ecological processes.
	National Park (1)	Aimed at preserving natural ecosystems of high ecological relevance and highly attractive for tourism. Scientific research, environmental education, leisure and eco-tourism activities are allowed.
	Natural Monument (2)	Aimed at preserving sites of rare, unique and outstanding scenic beauty.
	Wildlife Sanctuary (1)	Protects natural environments ensuring the necessary conditions for the existence or reproduction of local flora community or species and of the resident or migrating fauna.
<b>Sustainable Use Units</b>	Environmental Protection Area (APA) (1)	Large area, with a certain degree of human occupation, with relevant attributes as regards the fauna, flora, geology, landscape, and aesthetic or cultural values especially important for the well-being of human populations. Aimed at protecting biological diversity, disciplining the process of occupation and guaranteeing sustainable use of natural resources.
	Area of Relevant Ecological Interest (Arie) (1)	Generally a small area, with little or no human occupation, with extraordinary natural features or sheltering rare examples of the regional fauna or flora. Aimed at maintaining regionally or locally relevant natural ecosystems and regulating their use, in such a way as to make them compatible with nature conservation goals.
	National Forest (Flona) (1)	Area with predominantly native forest cover, mainly aimed at multiple and sustainable use of forest resources and scientific research, with a focus on methods for sustainable exploitation of native forests.
	Extractivist Reserve (Resex) (3)	Area used by traditional extractivist populations, whose livelihood is based on extractivism, subsistence farming, and small size livestock raising. Aimed at protecting the way of life and culture of these populations and ensuring sustainable use of natural resources.
	Fauna Reserve (1)	Area with native fauna species, both land and aquatic, resident or migrating, adequate for technical and scientific studies on sustainable economic management of fauna resources.
	Sustainable Development Reserve (1)	Natural area sheltering traditional populations, whose livelihood is based on sustainable systems for exploitation of natural resources, developed along generations and adapted to local ecologic conditions, which play an essential role in nature protection and preservation of biodiversity.
	Private Natural Heritage Reserve (RPPN) (1)	Private area of public interest, aimed at permanent conservation of biological diversity.

Source: MMA, 2007.

(1) Public ownership and domain; (2) Public or private lands; (3) Public domain, with use granted to traditional extractivist populations.

not exceed 1% in the *Pantanal* area. In addition to federal conservation units, there are areas protected by states and municipalities. In December 2006, Brazil had 423 state conservation units, amounting to 302 thousand kilometers, according to Snuc. At the municipal level, there were 689 conservation units in 2002, totaling 105 thousand square kilometers, according to the “Brazilian Municipalities Profile: Environment 2002”, of IBGE’s Basic Municipal Information Survey (2005). Federal, state and municipal conservation units together cover 13% of the national territory.

In addition to conservation units, in Brazil one can create geo-economic and social complexes called Sustainable Forest Districts (DFS) – areas where the government seeks to implement public policies to stimulate sustainable forest management and production. The initiative derives from the enactment of the Public Forests Management Act (n. 11.284/06). The first area of this type was created by decree in February 2006 and is located alongside the BR-163 Highway, a road that links the south of the country to Santarém, in the state of Pará (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal). Approximately 90% of its 190 thousand square kilometers are covered by forests. There are four forest production hubs in the region, with 205 companies operating in 15 localities. An area of 50 thousand square kilometers of the BR-163 Highway DFS is set apart for environmen-

tal management, and 4.5 million cubic meters of timber logs will be extracted in a sustainable manner.

In the beginning of 2007, the Federal Government updated the priority areas for conservation, sustainable use and distribution of biodiversity benefits in each Brazilian biome (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal). The areas were ranked according to their biological importance and urgent need for implementation of suggested actions. This resulted in a database with 2,684 priority areas for conservation (see map 2), of which 1,123 are already protected, such as indigenous conservation units or lands, and 1,561 have a recommendation by the Brazilian government for the implementation of preservation projects. The Atlantic Rainforest and the Amazon hold 63% of the priority areas (880 and 824 areas respectively). Other priority areas are in the *Cerrado* (431), *Caatinga* (292), *Pampas* (105), *Pantanal* (50) and *Marine Areas* (102).

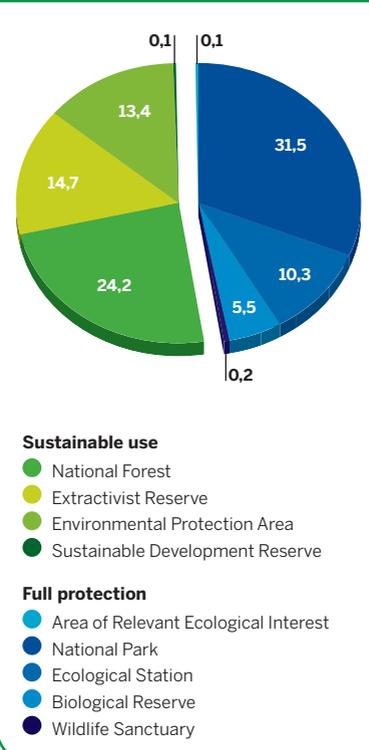
Indigenous lands and quilombola communities also contribute to the conservation of biodiversity and, above all, to the preservation of the culture of traditional peoples. According to the National Indigenous Foundation (Funai), there are approximately 512 thousand indigenous individuals in Brazil today<sup>4</sup>. In addition to this population, it is estimated that there are another 68 isolated communities, without contact with society. The

TABLE 2 • Legal status of indigenous lands<sup>5</sup> – Brazil, 2007

Legal status	N. of indigenous lands	Area km <sup>2</sup>
Under study/restriction	111	Undefined
Forwarded as Indigenous Reserve	15	66,61
Delimited	28	17.3654,93
Declared	36	80.108,51
Homologated	29	27.275,25
Titled	392	944.476,19
<b>Total</b>	<b>611</b>	<b>1.069.291,49</b>

Source: Ministry of Justice, FUNAI, official list on 10th May 2007

GRAPH 4 • Distribution of federal conservation units, according to management categories – Brazil, 2006



Source: MMA, National Registry for Conservation Units

TABLE 3 • Titled quilombola communities – Brazil, 2007

FU	Communities	Families	Area km <sup>2</sup>
AP	2	169	117.98
BA	5	1538	517.25
GO	1	600	2.531.92
MA	27	1782	296.58
MG	1	13	1.99
MS	2	130	24.34
MT	1	350	117.23
PA	30	3854	3.140.76
PE	2	521	170.49
PI	2	181	14.75
RJ	2	74	11.16
SE	1	130	21.01
SP	6	220	169.64
<b>Total</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>9562</b>	<b>7.135.08</b>

Source: Seppir, June 2007

country has 500 indigenous lands with different legal situations, totaling 1.07 million square kilometers – a territory larger than the state of Mato Grosso (see table 2). There are also 111 areas occupied by indigenous peoples being studied, whose extension is unknown. There are 392 indigenous lands effectively titled, encompassing almost 945 thousand square kilometers.

Most indigenous lands are concentrated in the North Region, and in the states of Mato Grosso and Maranhão (see map 3). The total surface of indigenous lands demarcated until May 2007 corresponds to 12.6% of the national territory.

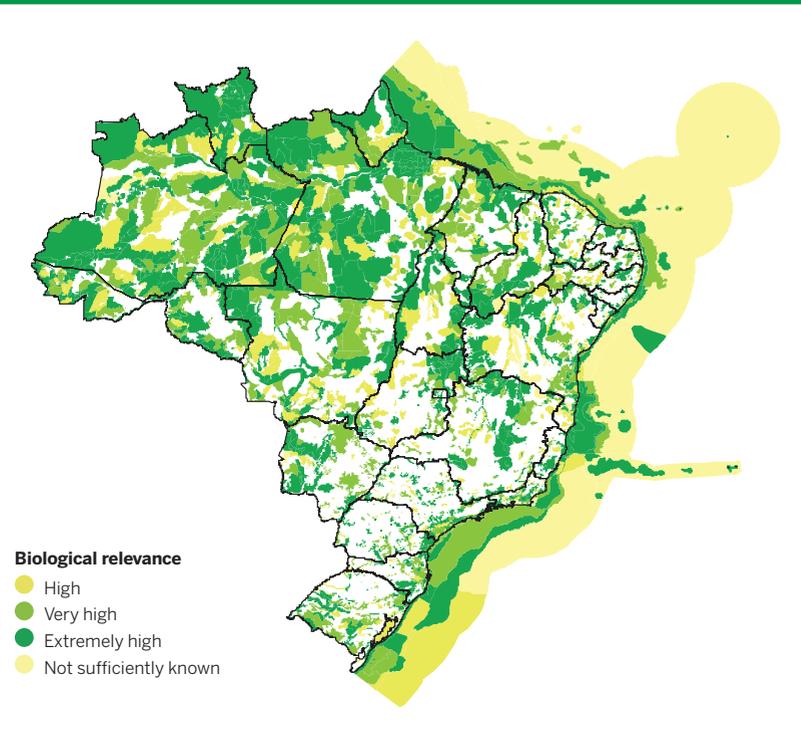
The area covered by *quilombola* communities is significantly smaller, but also important to preserve the environment, ethnic identity, culture and the way of life of Brazilian traditional communities. According to preliminary estimates, there are currently 3,524 *quilombola* communities identified in Brazil. Of this total, 1,170 have a self-recognition certification and 82 have landtitles. The latter are concentrated especially in Maranhão and Pará and account for 7,135 thousand square kilometers (see table 3).

### Energy level of the economy has been steady since 2000

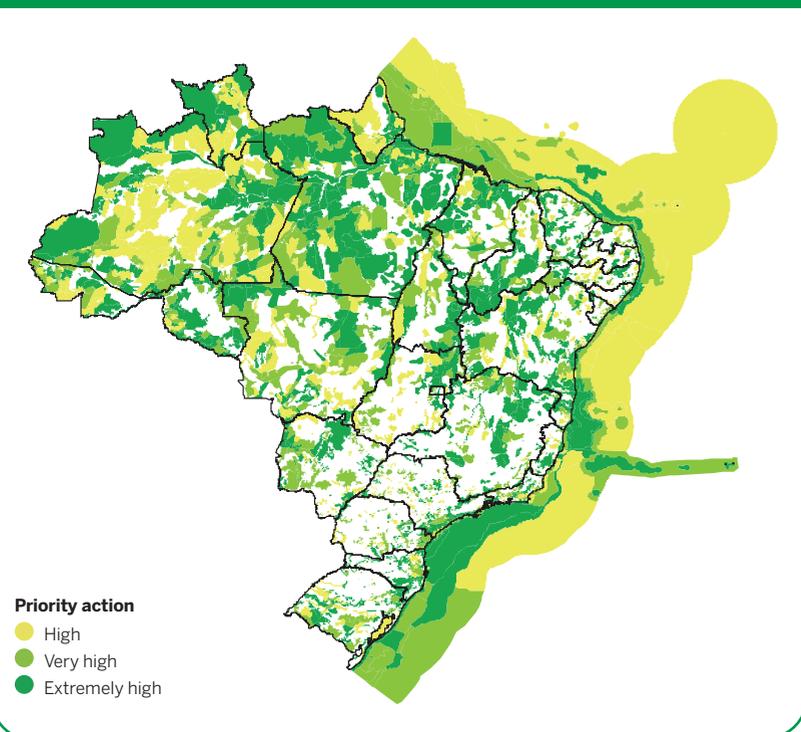
Energy consumption per GDP dollar is the third indicator recommended by the UN to monitor countries' performance regarding Target 9. This ratio indicates the degree of energy consumption in the economy and is associated with the country's productive structure and its level of economic growth. During the seventies, the energy intensity rate took on a declining trend, mainly as a result of greater use of more efficient sources – for example, home firewood (with energy efficiency between 4% and 10%) was replaced by liquefied petroleum gas (40% to 50% efficiency).

In the early eighties, however, the expansion of energy-intensive sectors, such

**MAP 2A • Priority conservation areas by biological relevance – Brazil, 2007**



**MAP 2B • Priority conservation areas by priority action – Brazil, 2007**



Source: MMA, 2007. Priority areas for Conservation, Sustainable Use and Distribution of Brazilian Biodiversity Benefits

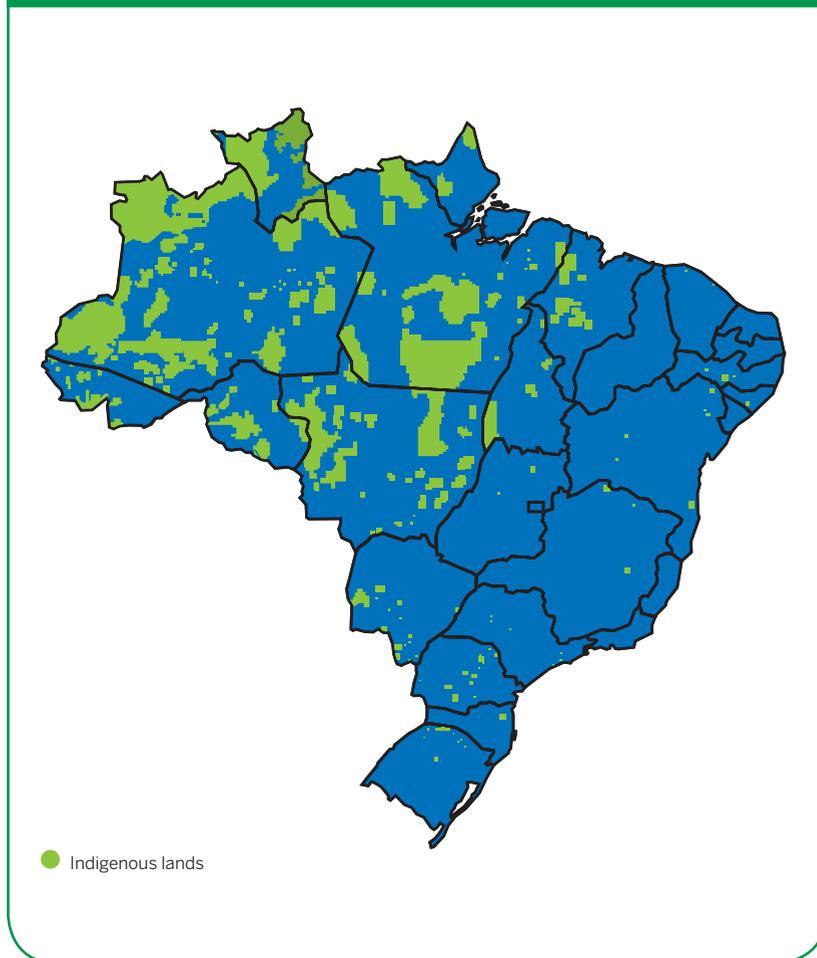
*Brazil  
prepares new  
inventory  
on emission  
of greenhouse  
gases*

as steelworks, contributed to raise this indicator. In the nineties, the energy intensity of the Brazilian economy fluctuated moderately, stabilizing at a lower level as of 2000 (*see graph 5*).

**Brazil reduces CFCs consumption by 90% and achieves Montreal's goal**

Two other indicators used to monitor the performance of Target 9 are the consumption of chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), ozone depleting gases, and emission of carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), the main greenhouse effect gas.

**MAP 3 • Indigenous lands – Brazil, 2004**



Source: MMA 2007, on the basis of Funai's Indigenous Reserves Areas, August 2004

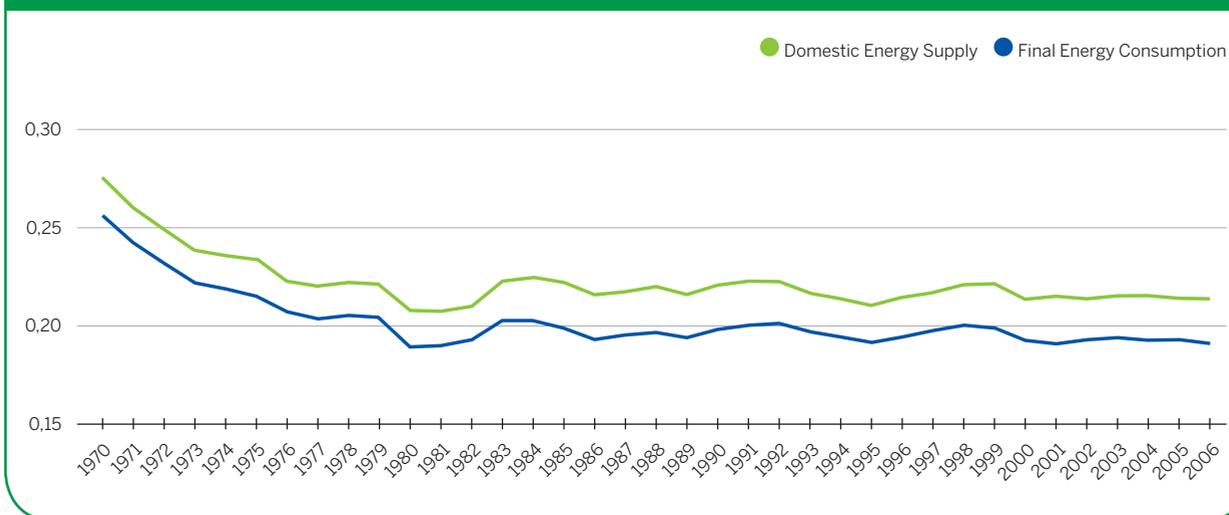
Brazil has reduced the use of ozone depleting substances. The consumption of CFCs – present in refrigerators and air-conditioning appliances – fell over 90% between 1999 and 2006, which allowed the country to achieve both its internal reduction goals and those established by the Montreal Protocol (*see graph 6*).

The most updated data available on the total emission of greenhouse gases are those contained in the 2005 Brazilian Progress Report of the Millennium Development Goals. Only those related to emissions derived from fossil fuels have been updated more often. The most re-

cent official estimates are contained in the “Inventory of Anthropogenic Emissions and Removals of Greenhouse Gases”, part of the first report presented by Brazil at the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change. The study, carried out by the Federal Government, features data related to the period between 1990 and 1994. A second inventory already underway will contain estimates of emissions up to 2000, in compliance with the convention's guidelines.

In Brazil, there are innumerable sources of greenhouse gas emissions. However, the profile of these emissions is quite dif-

**GRAPH 5 • Domestic energy supply and consumption per GDP unit – Brazil, 1970 to 2006 (ton of oil equivalent / thousand US\$)**



Source: Mme, National Energy Report, 2007

### BOX 3 • Revision of the GDP and energy intensity of different sectors of the economy

Changes in the methodology to calculate the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) carried out by IBGE in the beginning of 2007 changed the data on the share of each economic sector on wealth generation. This revision had an impact on sectoral energy intensity rates, which were recalculated for the previous years according to the new methodology. Since the second Report for the Millennium Development Goals was published in 2005, it featured different indicators from those that follow.

Retroactive studies carried out by IBGE indicate that the total GDP accumulated an 11% increase between 1995 and 2006. The service and transport sectors increased their weight in the economy as of 1995, while the industrial and farming sectors reduced their share.

With these changes, the energy intensity indicator for the farming sector increased between 1995 and 2006, due to intense penetration of the use of electricity and diesel in productive processes. In industry, the indicator also grew in the period, as a result of expansion of energy intense segments, especially paper and cellulose, and sugar and ethanol. In services, the increase was moderate, mainly influenced by greater electricity consumption by the sector's companies.

Energy intensity in the transport sector decreased in the period. This is due to the fact that the sector incorporated postal services – a segment that is not energy-intensive and has grown a lot in the last years. Table 4 shows energy intensity variations of different sectors between 1995 and 2006.

**TABLE 4 • Energy intensity by sector: quotient of total energy consumed by sector GDP – Brazil, 1995 and 2006 (ton of oil equivalent / thousand US\$)**

Sectors	1995	2006
Farming and livestock	0.122	0.140
Industry	0.288	0.287
Transports	1.137	1.025
Services*	0.014	0.015

\*The Services sector is the sum of the Trade and Public sectors, and does not include the Transport sector.  
Sources: IBGE (2007), National Accounts System, 2000 to 2006. Amounts of GDP in US\$ of 2006

*Deforestation of the Amazon and the Cerrado is the main source of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in Brazil*

ferent than that observed in developed countries, where most of them derive from fossil fuel burning, such as petroleum. Brazilian contribution to the greenhouse effect derives mainly from deforestation.

In 1994, emissions caused by change in land use of land and forests use<sup>6</sup> accounted for 75.4% of the carbon dioxide emission in Brazil, while activities linked to energy production and consumption represented 23% (see graph 7). The amount of CO<sub>2</sub> produced by Brazilians that year was 1.03 billion tons, 5% more than the amount registered in 1990. This increase can be attributed to the 16% increase in emissions related to energy transformation and to the 2% increase in emissions caused by change in land use and forest use.

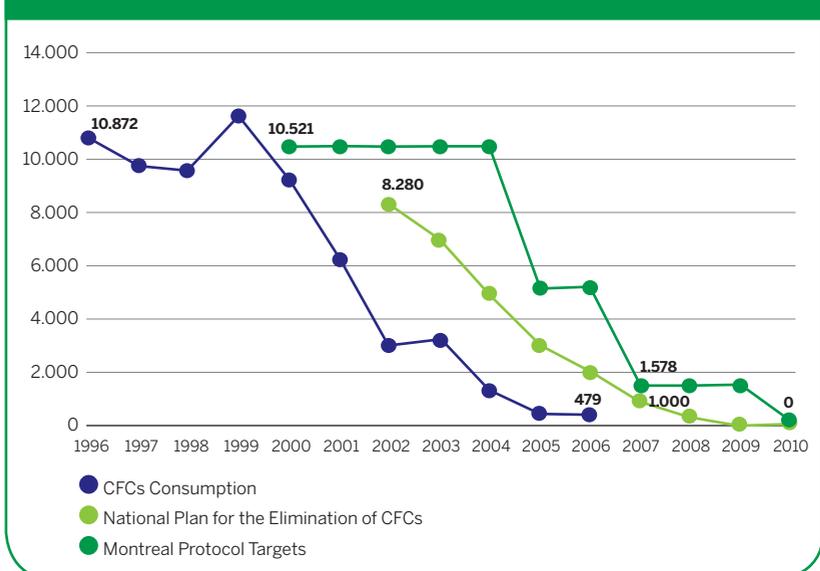
Of the total Brazilian CO<sub>2</sub> emissions originated by changes in forest cover and land use, 59% derive from deforestation of the Amazon and 26% de-

rive from deforestation of the *Cerrado* (see graph 8).

Another gas that aggravates the greenhouse effect is methane (CH<sub>4</sub>). It results from several human activities, especially, in Brazil, ruminant livestock raising (cattle, goat and sheep). This segment was responsible for 71.2 % of CH<sub>4</sub> deriving from human activity launched in the atmosphere in 1994. Other emissions derived mainly from the waste treatment, rice production in humid areas and other agricultural activities, and from the burning of fossil fuels and biomass (especially deforestation). Estimated emissions for 1994 were 13.2 million tons, representing a 7% increase in relation to the indicator calculated for 1990.

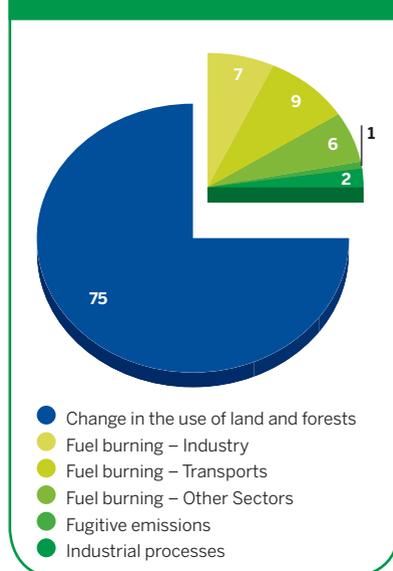
Another pollutant that contributes to the greenhouse effect is nitrogen oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O). In Brazil, the major sources of this gas related to human activities are the use of fertilizers in agriculture and, especially, animal excrement in pastures.

**GRAPH 6 • CFCs consumption and consumption goals of the National Plan for Elimination of CFCs and of the Montreal Protocol (in ODP, Ozone Depletion Potential) – Brazil, 1996 to 2010**



Source: MMA – Federal Technical Cadastre (CTF), Ibama/MMA, 2007

**GRAPH 7 • Contribution to CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by sector – Brazil, 1994**



Source: Brazil/MCT (2004) – Initial Communication from Brazil to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

In 1994, the country discharged around 550 thousand tons of nitrogen oxide – 12% more than in 1990.

Fluorite compounds are also part of the list of greenhouse gases (such as hydrochlorofluorocarbons, perfluorocarbons and sulphur hexafluoride). Industrial use of these gases is still negligible in Brazil, but should increase in the next years, since hydrofluorocarbons, with great radioactive power, can be substitutes for CFCs, banned by the Montreal Protocol.

There are other gases that indirectly contribute to the greenhouse effect, such as nitrogen oxides (NOx), carbon monoxide (CO), and non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOC). In 1994, Brazil emitted 2.3 million tons of nitrogen oxides – an increase of 11% in relation to 1990 - of which 69.6% originated from energy production activities. Carbon monoxide emissions totaled 31.4 million tons in 1994, more than half resulting from changes in land use. Non-meth-

ane volatile organic compound emissions totaled 1.3 million tons, an 11% rise, as compared with 1990.

### Renewable sources account for 45% of the domestic energy supply

CO<sub>2</sub> emissions caused by fuel burning tend to follow the variations of the domestic energy supply (OIE). In countries with clean energy sources, this relation is less intense. The bigger the availability of renewable sources, the smaller the amount of carbon dioxide generated by energy-consuming activities.

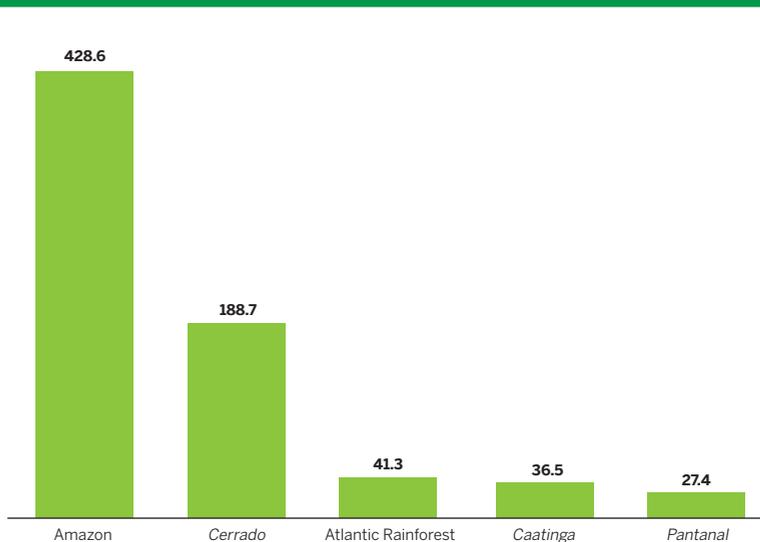
The Brazilian energy matrix is privileged in this aspect. Practically 45% of the domestic energy supply derives from renewable sources, such as hydroelectric plants and processes fueled by biomass (see graph 9). The proportion of renewable sources is only 13% in the world and falls to 6% among rich nations (see graph 10). The effects of this difference can be seen in pollution indices: Brazil discharges 1.75 ton of CO<sub>2</sub> a year per

inhabitant, less than half of the global average (4.18 tons per inhabitant).

The relation between carbon dioxide emissions and domestic energy supply followed a growing trend in Brazil during the nineties, a behavior influenced especially by reduced participation of renewable sources in the energy matrix – which in ten years was reduced from 49.1% to 41%. Since 2000, however, emission rates due to domestic energy supply have been declining. This decline has been stimulated by increased use of biomass (especially sugar cane bagasse), by the substitution of fuel oils for natural gas (less pollutant), and increased production of nuclear energy (generating no CO<sub>2</sub> emissions).

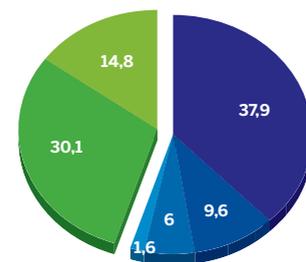
The last indicator recommended by the UN to monitor Target 9 is the proportion of the population using solid fuels for cooking and heating. Since the forties, when it started to be imported by Brazil, liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) has gradually replaced the use of firewood

**GRAPH 8 •** Liquid emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> as a result of changes in land use and of deforestation, according to main continental biomes – Brazil, 1994 (in millions of tons of CO<sub>2</sub>/ year)



Source: Brazil/MCT(2004) - Initial Communication from Brazil to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

**GRAPH 9 •** Domestic energy supply, by type of source – Brazil, 2006 (%)



**Renewable energy**

- Biomass
- Hydroelectric and Electricity

**Non-Renewable energy**

- Petrol and derivatives
- Natural Gas
- Mineral coal
- Uranium

Source: Mme, National Energy Report, 2007

*Use of wood-burning stoves, which are more polluting, has remained steady since 1997*

and charcoal for cooking. This process underwent a slight reversion in 1998, due to low economic growth, loss of income by the population, and successive increases in internal GLP price. As of 2003, however, the use of solid fuels for cooking has been decreasing (see graph 12).

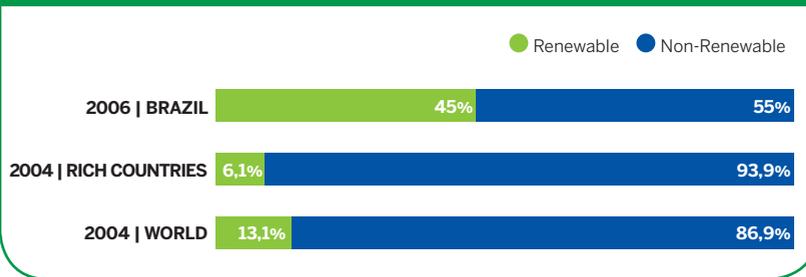
The proportion of people who predominantly use wood-burning stoves followed a similar trend, decreasing up to 1996 and since then oscillating around 8%, due to variations in cooking gas prices. This type of stove is more used in the Northeast (14.3%) and South (11.7%),

regions where countryside lifestyles predominate (see graph 13). For the country as a whole, this proportion is 8.4% (see graphic 14).

**Water supply system coverage increases, but access to adequate sanitation is still low**

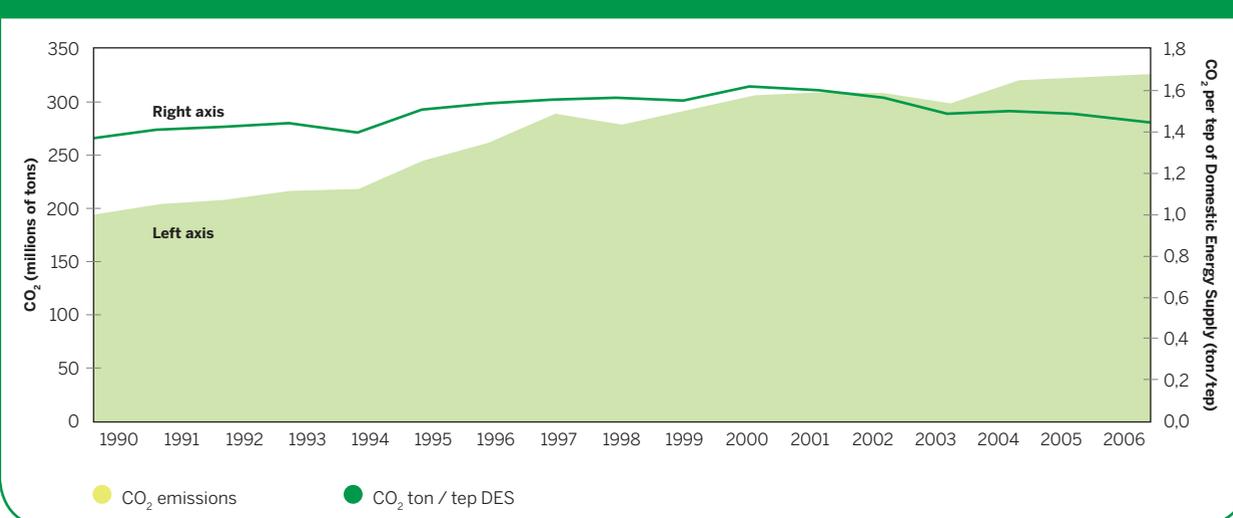
The indicators used to monitor Target 10 – access to drinking water and basic sanitation – are directly related to the quality of life and health of the population, and therefore to environmental sustainability. Data show that access to drinking water both in urban and rural areas has increased. In 2005, 89.8% of the urban population lived in households connected to the main water supply system – an increase of 7.5 percentage points, as compared to 1992. Considering adequate water supply by a main system, but with no internal piping, coverage goes up to 92%. Between 2002 and 2005, the water supply system was extended to cover 4.7 million households. Even with this expansion, 15.6 million people – a population greater than that of the state of Rio de Janeiro – still lived in urban households without adequate water supply in 2005.

**GRAPH 10 • Share of renewable sources in the domestic energy supply**



Source: Mme, National Energy Report, 2007

**GRAPH 11 • Total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions per ton of oil equivalent (toe) of domestic energy supply derived from fuel burning – Brazil, 1990 to 2006**



Source: Mme, National Energy Report, 2007

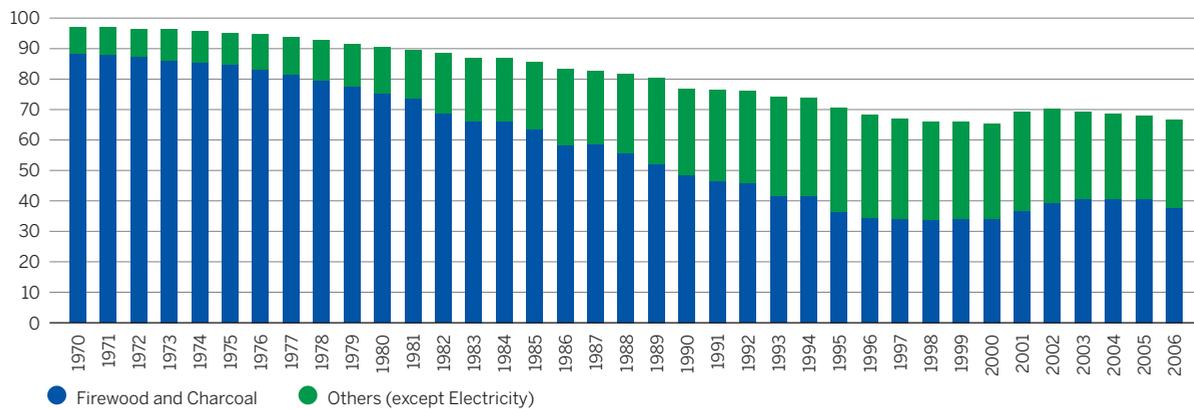
In rural areas, the proportion of the population with access to water supply system, with or without internal piping, increased 15.5 percentage points between 1992 and 2005, from 12.4% to 27.9%. Despite this increase, coverage is significantly smaller than that observed in urban areas. If one considers water supply from the water supply system

and wells or springs – which constitute a relatively adequate alternative in rural areas – coverage in rural areas reaches 83.1% (see table 5).

Those most affected by water shortage are the inhabitants of rural areas of municipalities in the Semi-Arid, due to the incidence of droughts in

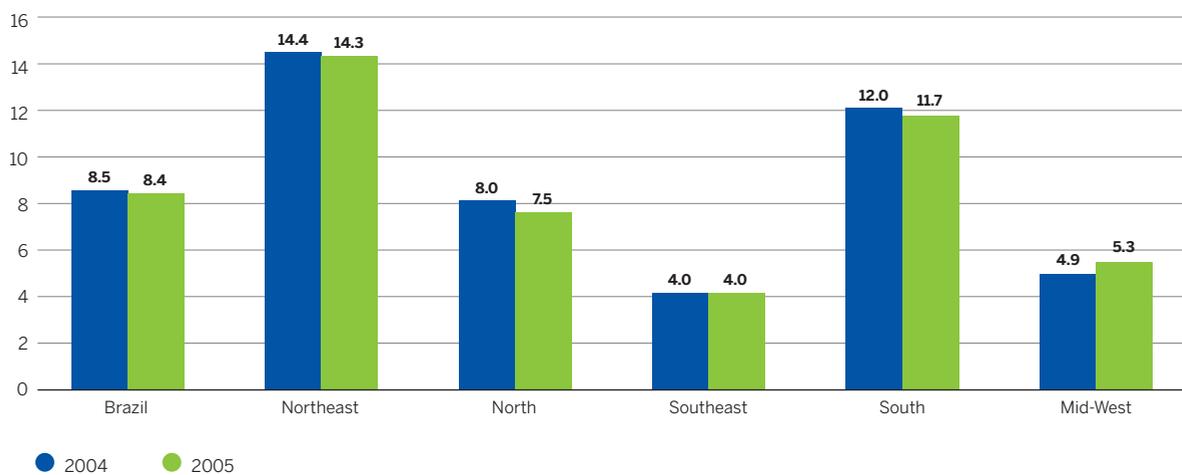
the region. The greatest water supply coverage deficits are in the North and Northeast (see map 4). In these two regions, most municipalities present coverage levels lower than 50% of the population, while in most municipalities of São Paulo, over 95% of the population have access to water supply systems.

**GRAPH 12** • Share of cooking in household energy use – Brazil, 1970 to 2006



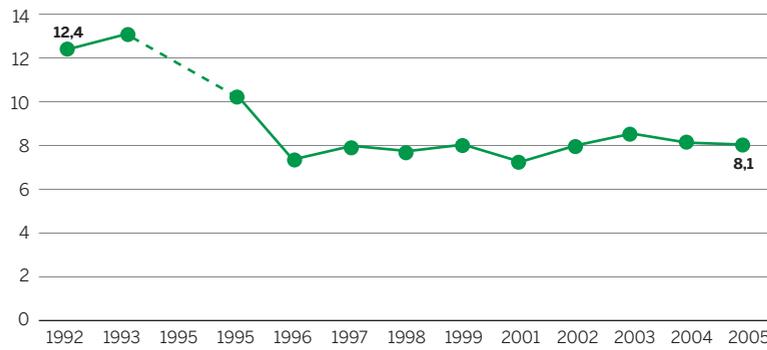
Source: Mme, National Energy Report, 2007

**GRAPH 13** • Percentage of inhabitants in permanent private households who predominantly use firewood for cooking – Brazil and Major Regions, 2004 and 2005



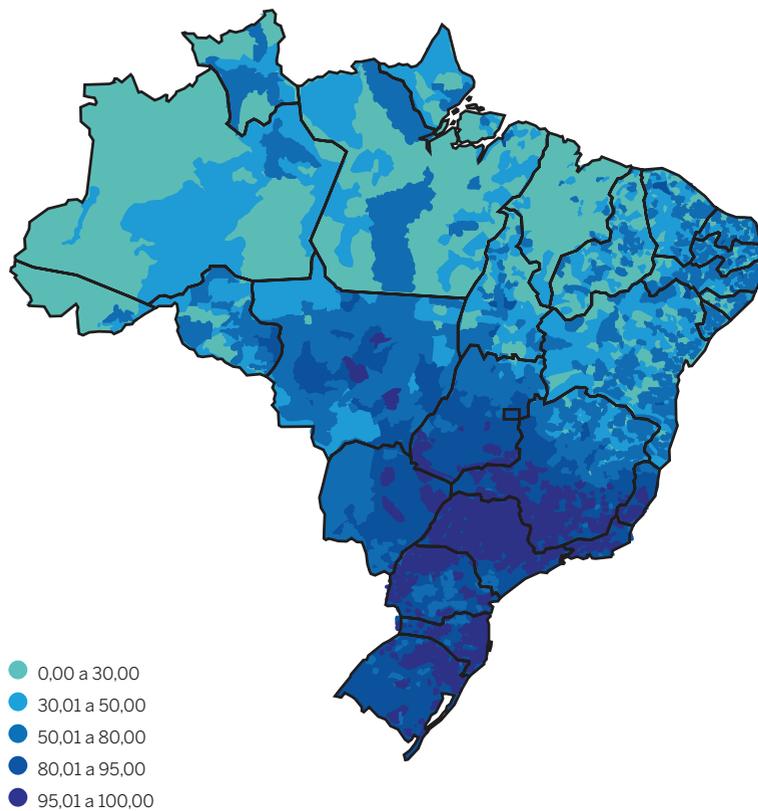
Source: IBGE, National Household Sample Survey, 2004 and 2005

**GRAPH 14 •** Percentage of inhabitants in permanent private households who predominantly use firewood for cooking – Brazil \*, 1992 to 2005



\* Excluding the rural population of Rondônia, Acre, Amazonas, Roraima, Pará and Amapá.  
Source: IBGE, National Household Sample Survey, 1992-2005, except 1994 and 2000, when the survey was not carried out

**MAP 4 •** Percentage of the urban population in permanent private households with piped water, per municipality – Brazil, 2000



Source: UNDP - Human Development Atlas - Brazil, 2003

Another indicator used to monitor Target 10 is the proportion of the population with access to adequate sanitation services – through sewage networks systems or septic tanks. In urban areas, coverage increased from 65.9%, in 1992, to 77.3%, in 2005. This means that in this period, 3.5 million urban households were connected to the general sanitation system. In rural areas, increased access was also observed, covering 18.2% of the population in 2005.

Despite service expansion, the lack of an adequate solution for sewage collection is a problem that affected 34.6 million Brazilians living in urban areas in 2005. In rural areas, the solution most frequently adopted for sewage collection is still the rudimentary tank, covering 45.3%. However, one quarter (27.1%) of the rural population does not have access to any type of sewage collection (see table 6). The pollution caused by the deficit of sewage collection services becomes even more serious due to the fact that less than one third of the sewage collected is treated.

Similarly to the water supply system, there are significant inequalities in access to adequate sewage collection among regions, states and municipalities. The Federal District and municipalities in the state of São Paulo have the best coverage in the country; the greatest deficits are concentrated in the North, Northeast and Midwest regions (see map 5).

The indicators of simultaneous access to water supply and adequate basic sanitation services <sup>7</sup> show that, in urban areas, coverage percentages increased in all Brazilian regions. However, regional inequalities remain high. The Southeast and the South, the richest regions in the country, present levels close to 90% and 80% respectively. However, in the Northeast and the North, the poorest regions, the proportion is around 60% and 40% respectively (see table 7). High sanitation deficits observed in municipalities of the North

and Northeast help explain the high infant mortality rates that still prevail in these regions.

There are also inequalities related to color/race. The indicators of access to adequate water and sanitation services of the Afrodescendent population (68.9%) are even lower than those of the white population (84.6%). This difference, however, has decreased in the last years, falling from 25.8 percentage points, in 1992, to 15.7 percentage points, in 2005. This decline has been more intense as of 2003 (*see graph 15*).

### Housing conditions improve, but inequalities remain

Brazil has experienced an intense urbanization process in the last 60 years, which made the proportion of the urban population jump from 31.4% in 1940, to

81.3% in 2000. This led to the emergence of large cities and to the concentration of the poor population in slums and other informal settlements, where precarious housing conditions prevail.

The United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-Habitat), in charge of monitoring Target 11 – have achieved by 2020 a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers – points out in the document *The State of the World's Cities 2006/7* that there is a positive correlation between housing conditions and human development indicators. According to the study, the existence of one or more housing inadequacies threatens the health, education and job opportunities of slum dwellers: they suffer more hunger, have fewer opportunities to get a well-paid job in the formal sector, have lower schooling

*Racial inequality in access to water and sanitation falls 10 percentage points in 13 years*

**TABLE 5 •** Percentage of inhabitants in permanent private households with water supply, per type of supply and household location – Brazil\*, 1992 – 2005

Year	Type of connection				Other undeclared types
	Main System		Well or spring		
	With indoor piping	Without indoor piping	With indoor piping	Without indoor piping	
<b>Urban</b>					
1992	82,3	6,0	3,9	3,8	4,0
1993	83,1	6,0	4,0	3,4	3,5
1995	84,6	5,2	4,1	3,0	3,0
1996	87,1	3,5	4,2	3,0	2,1
1997	86,6	4,0	4,2	2,5	2,7
1998	87,8	3,6	4,2	2,1	2,3
1999	88,5	3,4	4,2	2,0	1,9
2001	86,7	3,2	4,8	3,3	2,1
2002	88,6	2,8	5,1	1,9	1,6
2003	88,8	2,6	5,0	1,9	1,6
2004	89,5	2,4	4,9	1,7	1,6
2005	89,8	2,2	5,3	1,5	1,2
<b>Rural</b>					
1992	9,1	3,3	26,0	37,8	23,8
1993	9,6	4,7	26,2	35,4	24,2
1995	12,4	5,6	30,2	23,1	28,8
1996	15,8	4,2	28,6	32,6	18,7
1997	17,5	5,9	35,6	17,2	23,8
1998	16,9	5,4	29,8	25,4	22,6
1999	19,1	3,2	30,8	16,3	30,6
2001	15,5	5,4	33,1	25,4	20,6
2002	18,2	4,8	34,6	22,8	19,7
2003	19,6	6,1	34,4	20,9	19,1
2004	20,6	5,5	35,1	21,4	17,4
2005	22,2	5,7	34,9	20,3	16,8

\*Excluding the rural population of Rondônia, Acre, Amazonas, Roraima, Pará and Amapá.  
Source: IBGE, National Household Sample Survey, 1992-2005, except 1994 and 2000, when the survey was not carried out

*Proportion of adequate urban households ranges between 73.3% in the Southeast and 29.9% in the North*

levels, are more vulnerable to diseases, and die earlier than the remainder of the urban population. Thus, the report emphasizes that “the place where you live matters” and that the achievement of the target related to housing is essential for the achievement of the other Millennium Development Goals.

The indicator proposed by the UN to monitor Target 11 is the proportion of households with access to secure tenure – i.e., the percentage of the urban population not living in slums. UN-Habitat defines a slum household as a group of individuals living under the same roof in an urban area without at least one (in some cities two or more) of the following: secure tenure, structural quality and durability of the building, access to drinking water, access to basic sanitation and sufficient living space (see Box 5).

Recent data demonstrate progress of Brazilian municipalities in this indicator. The proportion of urban households with adequate housing conditions went from 49.4% in 1992, to 61.5% in 2005 (see table 8). Despite the progress made in the country as a whole, access to housing remains quite inequitable. While 68.2% of the households in the South and 73.3% of the households in the Southeast have appropriate housing conditions, the percentages of adequate dwellings are much lower in the North (29.9%), Midwest (40.3%) and Northeast (46.5%) regions.

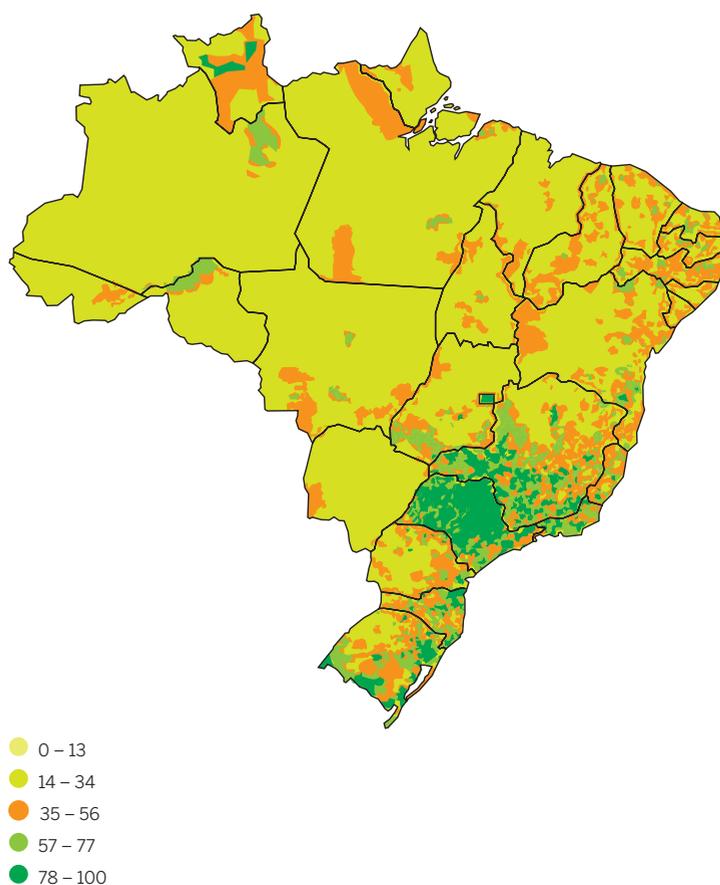
Despite the improvements, almost 17.3 million Brazilian urban households presented at least one of the following housing inadequacies in 2005: not served by water supply system, lack of sew-

**TABLE 6 • Percentage of residents of permanent private households per type of sewage collection and household location – Brazil \*, 1992 to 2005**

Ano	Type of access to basic sanitation						None
	With sewage collection, per type						
	Collection system	Septic tank	Rudimentary tank	Pit	Direct discharge on river, lake or sea	Other type	
<b>Urban</b>							
1992	45,5	20,4	22,9	2,0	2,5	0,3	6,2
1993	45,4	22,3	21,9	2,2	2,4	0,5	5,2
1995	46,0	22,4	22,1	1,9	2,5	0,5	4,6
1996	46,9	25,4	19,4	1,5	2,5	0,1	4,1
1997	47,6	24,0	20,1	1,7	2,5	0,1	3,9
1998	49,3	23,9	19,4	1,8	2,2	0,1	3,2
1999	50,6	23,2	19,6	1,6	2,0	0,1	3,0
2001	50,8	23,1	18,7	1,6	2,2	0,2	3,3
2002	51,6	23,3	18,1	1,6	2,4	0,1	2,9
2003	53,4	22,3	17,9	1,4	2,4	0,1	2,4
2004	54,1	22,0	18,1	1,4	2,3	0,1	2,1
2005	54,3	23,0	17,0	1,5	2,2	0,1	1,8
<b>Rural</b>							
1992	3,0	7,3	32,7	3,0	4,4	0,6	49,0
1993	3,1	8,1	34,1	3,4	4,1	1,0	46,3
1995	3,2	9,9	35,1	3,9	4,2	1,7	42,0
1996	3,5	13,8	35,5	3,9	3,7	0,4	39,1
1997	3,5	10,9	39,0	3,4	3,9	0,7	38,7
1998	4,5	10,3	39,9	4,0	4,6	0,5	36,3
1999	4,5	11,2	41,2	3,6	4,2	0,7	34,7
2001	3,1	10,6	40,5	4,7	4,1	0,8	36,2
2002	3,7	12,3	40,7	5,9	3,9	0,6	32,9
2003	3,7	13,5	42,9	5,9	3,7	0,8	29,6
2004	4,0	14,0	44,7	4,3	3,8	0,5	28,8
2005	4,4	13,8	45,3	5,3	3,6	0,5	27,1

\*Excluding the rural population of Rondônia, Acre, Amazonas, Roraima, Pará and Amapá  
Source: IBGE, National Household Sample Survey, 1992-2005, except 1994 and 2000, when the survey was not carried out

**MAP 5 •** Percentage of urban households with access to basic sanitation services through public sewerage collection system or septic tanks, per municipality – Brazil, 2000



Source: IPEA/DISOC, based on microdata from the 2000 IBGE Census

*Housing deficit amounts to 7.9 million households and affects mainly low-income families*

**TABLE 7 •** Share of the urban population with access to adequate water supply and sewage services – Brazil, 1992 to 2005

Year	Region					Urban Brazil
	North	Northeast	Southeast	South	Mid-West	
1992	31,5	39,9	79,7	62,5	37,0	62,3
1993	34,3	41,3	80,7	63,5	39,3	63,5
1995	33,7	41,9	82,8	65,4	38,5	64,7
1996	34,1	49,0	85,3	70,5	42,2	68,6
1997	36,5	45,6	86,1	68,7	45,5	68,3
1998	36,5	46,6	87,8	70,8	46,8	69,7
1999	38,9	48,0	87,8	73,7	44,3	70,4
2001	34,5	52,0	86,7	72,9	45,0	69,9
2002	37,6	51,7	87,5	75,6	45,5	70,7
2003	36,6	52,6	87,9	76,9	47,6	71,4
2004	40,4	53,6	88,5	78,9	43,1	72,0
2005	42,6	56,9	88,7	78,3	47,2	73,3

Sources: IBGE, National Household Sample Survey, 1992-2005, except 1994 and 2000, when the survey was not carried out

age connections to the major collecting network or septic tanks, lack of a toilet exclusive to the household, non-durable ceiling and walls, overcrowding (more than three people per room used as a dormitory), non-conformity with building standards (subnormal settlements), and urban land-titling irregularity.

Taking inadequacy factors separately, it is observed that, in 2005, the main housing problems in Brazilian urban areas were related to lack of basic sanitation and access to water supply. The third most frequent type of inadequacy was overcrowding. Most of these urban precarious households are concentrated in the Southeast and Northeast regions, which shelter, 5.9 million (34.0%) and 5.2 million (30.2%) of them respectively (see graph 17).

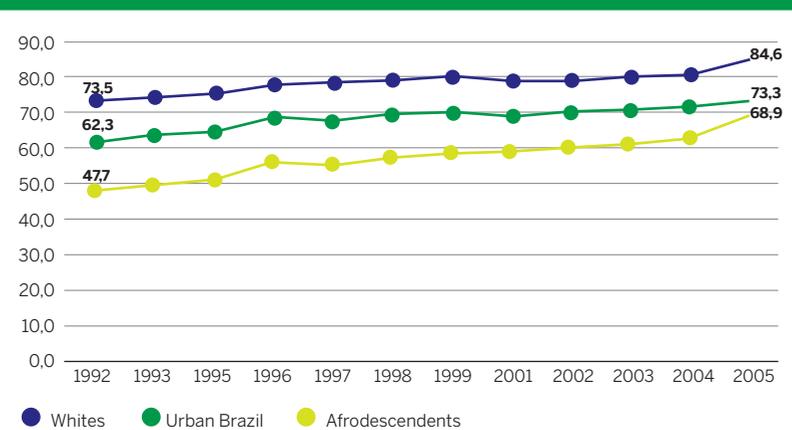
Disparities in access to adequate housing are also apparent when color/race indicators are observed. Although the difference between the indicator of the white population and that of the Afro-descendants population fell 7 percent between 1992 and 2005, the gap between the rates is still more than 20 percent. In 2005, 70.6% of the households headed by whites had adequate housing conditions; among those headed by Afro-descendants, the percentage was 50.5% (see graph 18).

An indicator widely used in Brazil for designing housing policies is the housing deficit calculated by the João Pinheiro Foundation for the Brazilian government (see table 9). The concept of housing deficit used in the survey considers two aspects: reconstruction of houses due to the precariousness of the buildings and to physical structure wear; and the increase of the number of houses due to family co-housing and improvised households. In addition to these two components,

there is the deficit owed to excessive burden with rent – urban households with family income up to three minimum wages spending more than 30% of their income to pay rent.

In 2005, the Brazilian housing deficit was 7.9 million households and was concentrated in the Southeast (36.7%) and Northeast (34.7%) regions. The housing demand was mainly destined to address problems of family overcrowding (56.8%). The second major cause of the deficit was

**GRAPH 15 •** Percentage of residents of urban permanent private households with access to adequate water and sanitation services, according to color/ race of household heads – Brazil, 1992 to 2005



Sources: IBGE, National Household Sample Survey, 1992-2005, except 1994 and 2000, when the survey was not carried out

**TABLE 8 •** Percentage of urban permanent private households with adequate housing conditions – Brazil and Macrorregions, 1992 to 2005

Year	Region					Urban Brazil
	North	Northeast	Southeast	South	Mid-West	
1992	22,5	31,1	61,5	51,2	29,2	49,4
1993	22,3	33,1	63,1	53,3	33,2	51,3
1995	23,9	34,4	65,5	55,2	31,5	52,8
1996	25,6	38,0	66,4	58,5	34,9	54,9
1997	26,1	36,6	67,7	56,2	36,3	55,0
1998	26,3	38,1	69,4	58,6	38,5	56,7
1999	28,6	39,5	70,0	61,4	37,9	57,7
2001	24,7	41,7	70,1	61,4	37,8	57,6
2002	25,8	42,5	71,4	64,7	38,8	59,1
2003	24,2	43,3	72,3	65,6	39,7	59,7
2004	29,9	44,9	73,2	67,9	38,3	61,0
2005	29,9	46,5	73,3	68,2	40,3	61,5

Sources: IBGE, National Household Sample Survey, 1992-2005, except 1994 and 2000, when the survey was not carried out

## BOX 4 • The importance of water resources in Brazil

Brazil has a privileged position in the world as for the availability of water resources. The annual average outflow of Brazilian rivers is approximately 180 thousand cubic meters per second, or 12% of the world's available freshwater (see graph 16).

Despite plentiful availability, there are major inequalities in the distribution of water resources in Brazil. Around 70% of the surface freshwater available is in the Amazon, the area with the smallest demand in the country. Conversely, urban centers have the greatest consumption rates and the lowest water availability. Irregular distribution of water resources, and the economic and population growth have intensified water usage, which causes scarcity and conflicts for the use of water.

For the purposes of water resources management, Brazil is divided into 12 hydrological regions – basins or series of contiguous basins, where the main river flows into the sea or into foreign territory (see map 6).

The Amazon hydrological region is the largest in territorial extension, followed by Tocantins-Araguaia and Paraná. As for population density, the Southeastern Atlantic, Eastern Northeast Atlantic, South Atlantic and Paraná regions are the most densely populated, with more than 60 inhabitants per square kilometer. The less densely populated hydrological regions are the Amazon, Paraguay and Tocantins-Araguaia. According to United Nations parameters, the ratio between freshwater demand and availability per inhabitant in Brazil is considered most adequate: on average, 33,776 cubic meters of water are available per inhabitant per year - almost 20 times the limit established by the UN for a country to be considered under hydrological stress (1,700 cubic meters per inhabitant per year).

However, the national average does not reveal the inequalities related to the distribution of surface water. While the Amazon has the greatest per capita outflow in the country (533,096 cubic meters per year), the Eastern Northeast Atlantic region, comprising part of the Brazilian Semi-Arid region, has the lowest per capita outflow (1,145 cubic meters per year) – making it the only hydrological region in Brazil with water availability below the critical level established by the UN.

Map 7 shows the distribution of water availability to meet the demand using five percentile intervals widely adopted by United Nations agencies, ranging from excellent to very critical. One can observe that the highest concentration of very critical, critical and high concern areas is in the Northeast region, particularly, in municipalities of the Semi-Arid region<sup>8</sup>, where the Brazilian government has concentrated its initiatives against desertification (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal).

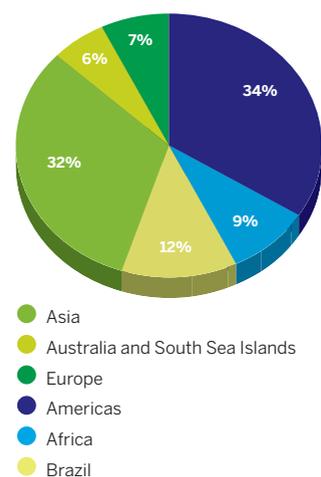
In Brazil, most of the water collected from natural sources is used for irrigation (46%) and human consumption (27%). Industrial use and livestock raising account for the remaining consumption.

In analyzing water availability for human consumption, two aspects need to be taken into account. The first one is related to water supply, which in regions such as the Semi-Arid, for example, is quite scarce. The other relates to the quality of the water available, which has been an increasingly serious problem in many municipalities, especially in big cities. In most of these areas, the degradation of water resources – characterized by overlapping problems, such as domestic and industrial pollution, and irregular settlements on hillsides,

wetlands, marshlands and riverbanks – compromises the sources' supply capacity. The result of this scenario is scarcity of adequate water for human consumption.

In order to improve water resources management to meet the increasing water demand, the Brazilian government has implemented several initiatives. The Brazilian Water Resources Plan outlines the sector's strategic planning, and its actions are carried out by the National System for Water Resources Management<sup>9</sup>. Brazil also develops projects in partnership with other countries, such as the Project for Environmental Protection and Sustainable Development of the Guarani Groundwater System and the International Program for Management of Cross-Border Groundwater of the Americas (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal).

GRAPH 16 • Surface freshwater distribution



Source: MMA/ANA/UNEP (2007).  
Geo Brazil - Water Resources

the excessive burden with rent (23.5%), followed by precarious houses (19.7%). Graph 19 shows that, in metropolitan regions, the deficit is made up mainly of family co-housing and excessive burden with rent, which indicates that in these places the problem is at least partly due to housing scarcity and high costs.

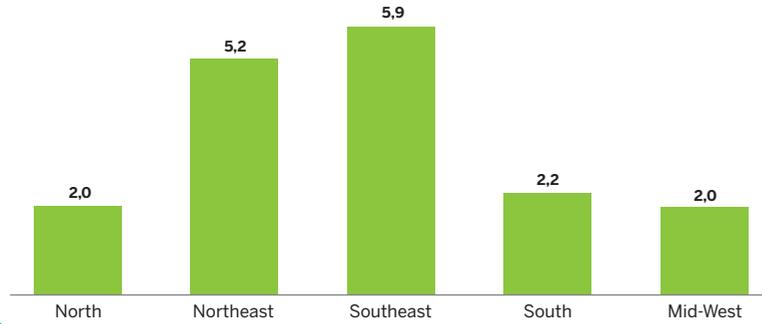
The housing deficit affects mainly the low income population. In 2005, 90.3% of this deficit comprised families with monthly incomes of up to 3 minimum wages (see graph 20). Guaranteeing adequate housing to this poor population is today one of the most important challenges for public managers.

The achievement of targets requires more investments in basic sanitation, housing and the environment

The analysis of the Brazilian performance as regarding Target 9 allows one to conclude that Brazil can further increase the share of renewable sources in its energy matrix. This expansion should be stimulated mainly by the use of biofuels at a larger scale. As for the emissions of ozone depleting substances, prospects are also good. With the implementation of the National Plan for the Elimination of Production and Consumption of Ozone Depleting Substances, the country will be able to achieve one of the most ambitious targets of the Montreal Protocol: 85% reduction in the consumption of ozone depleting substances in 2007, and 100% reduction in 2010 (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal).

According to estimates at the Brazilian government, the energy intensity of the Brazilian economy is likely to decrease. Also, the emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> per GDP dollar should fall by 2030, due to reduced participation of energy-intensive sectors in the economy, the maintenance of renewable sources in the consumption structure and the implementation of energy effi-

GRAPH 17 • Urban households with inadequate housing conditions – Brazil and Macrorregions, 2005 (in millions of households)



Sources: IBGE, National Household Sample Survey, 1992-2005, except 1994 and 2000, when the survey was not carried out

MAP 6 • Brazilian hydrological regions, 2007



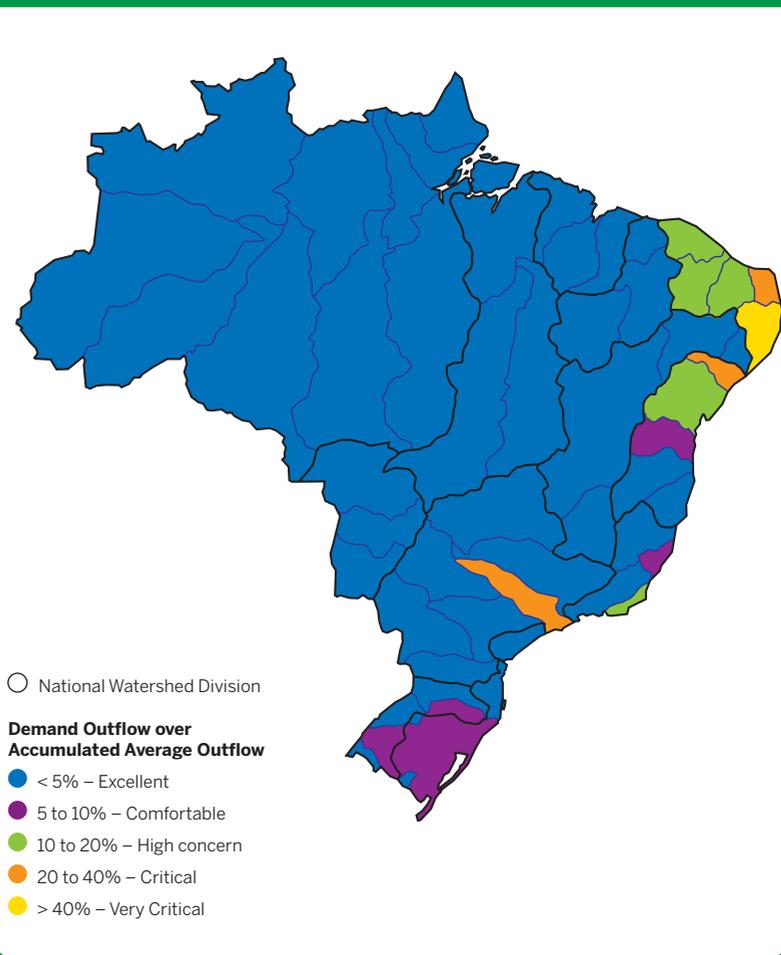
Source: MMA/ANA/UNEP (2007). Geo Brazil - Water Resources

**TABLE 9 • Total housing deficit – Brazil and Macrorregions, 2005**

Region	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban (%)	Rural (%)	Total (%)
North	614.573	235.782	850.355	72,3	27,7	100,00
Northeast	1.844.068	899.079	2.743.147	67,2	32,8	100,00
Southeast	2.725.205	173.723	2.898.928	94,0	6,0	100,00
South	755.589	118.119	873.708	86,5	13,5	100,00
Mid-West	474.708	61.853	536.561	88,5	11,5	100,00
Brazil	6.414.143	1.488.556	7.902.699	81,2	18,8	100,00

Source: João Pinheiro Foundation, 2005 Housing Deficit in Brazil, Belo Horizonte, 2006

**MAP 7 • Spatial distribution of the relation between demand outflow and accumulated average outflow in Brazilian hydrological regions, 2005**



Source: MMA (2006). Brazilian Water Resources Plan

ciency programs (see the attached CD for this and other initiatives that contribute to the achievement of this Goal).

One of the greatest challenges for the achievement of the ninth target is combining economic development with the sustainable use of natural resources. Brazil is the main country among the so-called megadiverse countries, sheltering more than 13.2% of the total number of species in the planet – an incommensurable environmental and economic asset. It has a diversity of ecosystems distributed into six biomes and a sea coast of 3.5 million square kilometers, with coral reefs, dunes, wetlands, lagoons, estuaries and marshes. The Amazon and the *Pantanal*, which maintain around 85% of their native vegetation cover, should undergo actions that result in conservation and sustainable use of natural resources, and in optimized use of lands that have already been changed. In the case of the Atlantic Rainforest, which maintains only 27% of its native vegetation cover (and, out of these, only 7% are well conserved), actions should prioritize the conservation of biodiversity and the reclaiming of degraded areas. The *Pampas*, *Cerrado* and *Caatinga* should also undergo actions that prioritize the conservation of remaining vegetation cover and sustainable use of biodiver-

sity. To this effect, there should be intense actions to deter the expansion of the agricultural frontier in ecologically fragile areas, such as the *Cerrado* and the Amazon.

In the various Brazilian biomes, efforts should be intensified towards guaran-

teeing conservation of biodiversity, with expansion and consolidation of a national system of protected areas that encompasses representative shares of ecosystems and the coastal and marine zones. Similarly, initiatives to reclaim the vegetation cover in permanent preservation areas and legal reserves are also important.

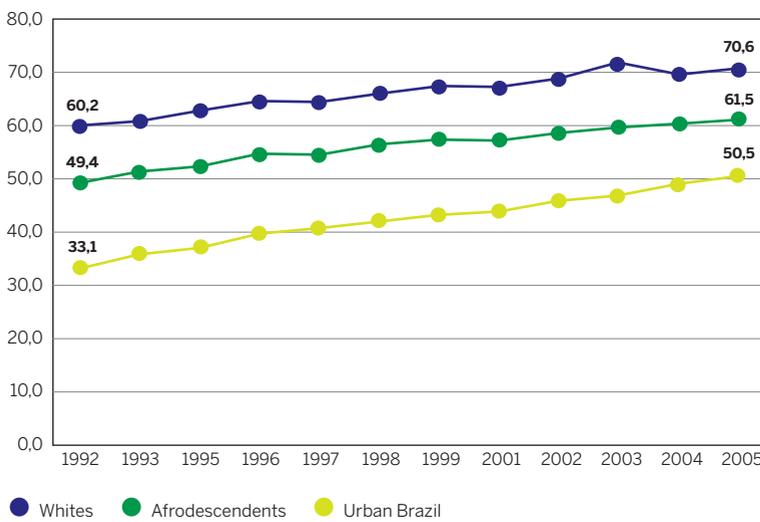
As for Target 10, water supply indicators demonstrate that Brazil is on track and should achieve the target envisioned for 2015 without difficulties.

As for basic sanitation, the chances of Brazil achieving the target depend on the criteria used to measure it. If one considers adequate access to main sanitation system or septic tank, the country is also expected to achieve the target within the established period. However, if only access to a sanitation system is considered adequate, the chances of achieving the target become quite remote.

In this case, Brazil would need to invest R\$ 9.3 billion (US\$ 4.9 billion) a year – R\$ 2.9 billion (US\$ 1.5 billion) in water supply and R\$ 6.4 billion (US\$ 3.4 billion) in sanitation – to achieve Target 10 of the Millennium Goals by 2015, according to preliminary estimates. Between 2003 and 2006, Brazilian government investments in these services amounted to R\$ 3 billion (US\$ 1.6 billion) a year. This amount is double that observed between 1995 and 2002, but is insufficient to achieve the target – unless the pace of investments foreseen in the Growth Acceleration Program (PAC) is materialized, amounting to around R\$ 10 billion (US\$ 5.3 billion) a year.

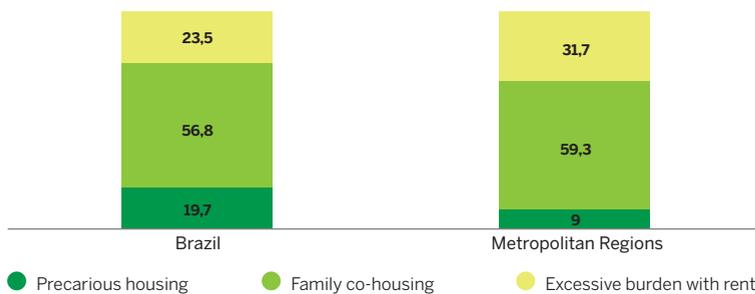
The challenges for the achievement of Target 10 involve, therefore, substantial increase of funds invested in sewage collection and treatment and for the implementation of a set of actions to guarantee the universalization of adequate water supply and basic sanitation. These funds should target mainly low income population areas, slum dwellers, outskirts of big cities, and small municipalities in ru-

**GRAPH 18 •** Percentage of urban permanent private households with adequate housing conditions, by color/race of household heads – Brazil and Macrorregions, 1992 to 2005



Sources: IBGE, National Household Sample Survey, 1992-2005, except 1994 and 2000, when the survey was not carried out

**GRAPH 19 •** Share of housing deficit components – Brazil and metropolitan regions, 2005



Source: João Pinheiro Foundation, 2005 Housing Deficit in Brazil, Belo Horizonte, 2006

ral areas, segments where the sanitation deficit is still high. Regional inequalities are also an important challenge to be addressed.

Moreover, the country should dedicate special attention to expanding access to adequate water supply and basic sanitation services in Semi-Arid municipalities, indigenous areas, quilombola communities, land reform areas, and extractivist reserves.

To achieve Target 11, Brazil needs to address important challenges, such as uncontrolled urban growth in regions of economic and agricultural frontiers, increase of informal settlements, and the fairly small improvements in the indicators of access to adequate basic sanitation and housing. As for socioeconomic inequalities, there is still much to be done to improve the housing conditions of the Afrodescendent and indigenous populations, as well as in rural areas and outskirts of large cities.

Another important challenge is to improve the amount and the quality of policy and program evaluation and of existing information on housing and sanitation conditions in Brazil, since the available sources, such as the Population Census and the National Household Sample Survey (Pnad), feature a limited amount of information on these issues, especially regarding precarious settlements.

An important step for the achievement of Target 11 was the inclusion of initiatives related to slum upgrading in the Growth Acceleration Plan. Between 2007 and 2010, the program intends to invest R\$ 14.6 billion (US\$ 7.7 billion) in the improvement of living conditions in slums, to include sanitation and urbanization projects. The point is that, considering the scale of the Brazilian housing problem, this sum is relatively small.

In order to improve living conditions in precarious settlements, it is not enough to invest in improvement of housing condi-

tions and land-titling, environmental and urban regularization of existing settlements. It requires preventive measures to prevent the creation of new informal settlements. This includes actions related to urban and tenure regulation, territorial organization policies, use of vacant households, and recovery of central areas, as well as increased access to well located land for low income housing, combined with housing supply compatible with income levels, and the different population needs, in addition to preventive measures to restrain housing in risky areas and increased coverage of basic sanitation and public transport services.

Besides addressing the field of urban policies, government actions should include programs to create job and income opportunities and increased access to credit, health, and education for slum dwellers.

<sup>1</sup> FAO defines forest areas as land with a minimum area of 0.5 hectare, where the tree crown cover is more than 10 per cent, or trees able to reach these limits. It does not include areas whose land use is predominantly urban or agricultural.

<sup>2</sup> Covering an area of 5.2 million square kilometers, the Brazilian Legal Amazon comprises around 60% of the domestic territory. Created by Law n. 5.173, of 27th October 1966, and later modified by Complementary Law n. 31 of 1977, and by the 1988 Federal Constitution, it encompasses the states of the North Region (Amazonas, Pará, Rondônia, Acre, Roraima, Amapá and Tocantins), Mato Grosso and the west of Maranhão (up to meridian 44).

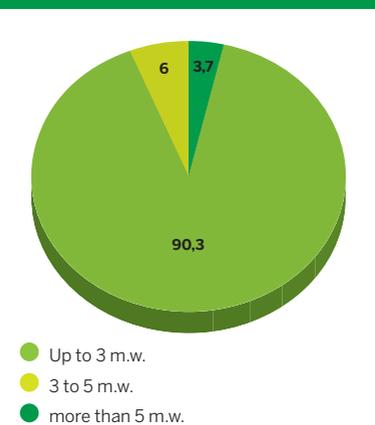
<sup>3</sup> These data do not include 425 Natural Heritage Private Reserves (RPPN), recognized by Ibama, which involve an area of approximately 4.4 thousand square kilometers.

<sup>4</sup> Not including undefined indigenous lands, urban campsites and groups.

<sup>5</sup> The legal status of Brazilian indigenous

## *Investments in slum upgrading and land-tiling regularization should be accompanied by actions to prevent new informal settlements*

**GRAPH 20** • Distribution of urban housing deficit by average monthly income brackets in minimum wages – Brazil, 2005



Source: João Pinheiro Foundation, 2005 Housing Deficit in Brazil, Belo Horizonte, 2006

### BOX 5 • How many people live in precarious settlements in Brazil?

In Brazil, one of the main impediments for the achievement of Target 11 is the lack of an adequate estimate of the number of slum dwellers. The estimate most widely accepted by public authorities and academics to quantify the number of slum dwellers is the population living in areas categorized by IBGE as special sectors of subnormal settlements. In 2000, in Brazil, there were approximately 6.6 million people living in 1.7 million households located in subnormal settlements - characterized by land-titling informality, lack of urban planning, lack of essential public services, and mostly laid out in a dense and disordered manner.

Households in subnormal settlements are concentrated mainly in the Southeast region (63%). In Brazil, slums are a typically metropolitan phenomenon - the metropolitan regions of São Paulo and Rio de Janeiro together shelter 44.6% of the households in subnormal settlements. São Paulo is the state with the greatest number of subnormal households (over 30% of the total).

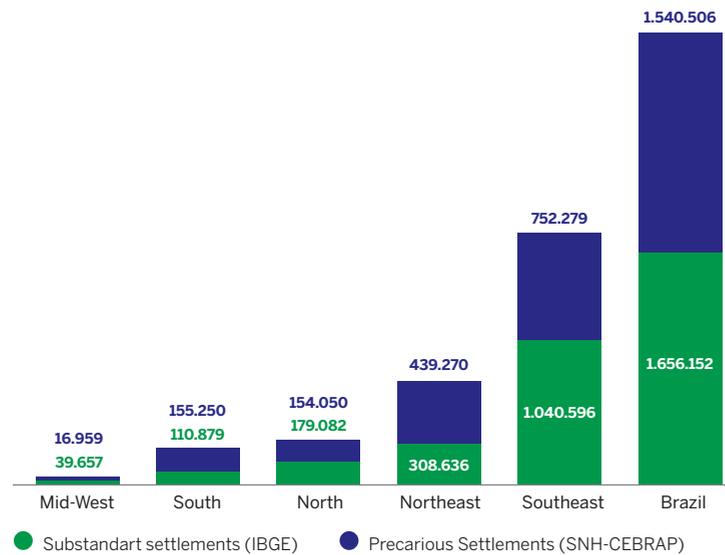
Although it is much used in practice, the concept of substandard settlements highly underestimates the dimension of urban informality, which creates difficulties for the planning of government actions in precarious settlements. Aiming to overcome these limitations, the National Housing Secretariat, in partnership with the Metropolis Studies Center (CEM) of the Brazilian Center for Analysis and Plan-

ning (Cebrap), carried out a study on census tracts – the smallest Census unit, corresponding to the region covered by a surveyor and comprising approximately one thousand inhabitants – that presented socioeconomic, demographic and housing profiles similar to the census tracts classified by IBGE as substandard settlements<sup>10</sup>. The survey, including 555 municipalities, increased to 14,576 the number of census tracts presenting socioeconomic characteristics similar to substandard settlements – according to the 2000

Census, census tracts in this situation amounted to 7,696.

According to IBGE, the 555 municipalities covered by the study were home for 6.4 million inhabitants, living in 1.6 million households located in substandard settlements. The survey of the National Housing Secretariat and Cebrap added to this number another 6 million inhabitants and 1.5 million households. Thus, the total of inhabitants in precarious settlements increases to 12.4 million people in 3.2 million households (see graph 21).

**GRAPH 21 • Number of households in precarious settlements – Brazil and Microrregions, 2000**



Source: IBGE, 2000 Population Census and SNH/MCITIES, 2007

land is in the following stages as regards regularization:

- Under study / restriction: indigenous land being studied or with an Administrative Rule for restricted use;
- Forwarded as an Indigenous Reserve: acquired indigenous land, in process of acquisition, or registered domain;
- Delimited: indigenous land with related anthropologic report and limits approved by Funai;
- Declared: indigenous land with related anthropologic report and limits approved by the Ministry of Justice;
- Homologated: indigenous land homologated by the Presidency of the Republic;
- Titled: indigenous land registered in a property notary's office and in the Federal Heritage Secretariat.

<sup>6</sup> Comprises four categories: changes in biomass supplies in forests and other woody formations; conversion of forests for other uses; abandonment of managed areas; and CO<sub>2</sub> emission and removal through the soil.

<sup>7</sup> In urban areas, adequate service means water supplied by a main water supply system connected to pipes inside households and sewage collected by a sewer collection network or septic pit.

<sup>8</sup> The region comprises 1,482 municipalities throughout 11 states and its area corresponds to 15.7% of the domestic territory.

<sup>9</sup> Formed by the National Water Resources Council, National Water Agency, States and the Federal District Water Resources Councils, River Basin Committees, agencies of the federal, state, Federal District and municipal public authority whose mandates relate to water resources management, and State Water Agencies.

<sup>10</sup> The estimates were carried out for 555 municipalities that represented 47% of the census blocks and 97.8% of the census blocks categorized as subnormal in the 2000 Census. The work included 465 municipalities of metropolitan regions, metropolitan nuclei, metropolitan expansion areas, integrated development

regions or metropolitan collars, 28 municipalities in urban spaces according to the project "Analysis of Brazilian Metropolitan Regions", and 62 municipalities with more than 150 thousand inhabitants, not fitting into the previous concepts. The non-special sectors, that were similar to IBGE's special sectors of subnormal settlements, were also included in the estimate of precarious settlements, amounting to 6.880 census blocks, in addition to the 7.696 sectors already classified as subnormal by IBGE.

# MDG 7 • ENSURE ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY

## MAIN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

### TARGET 9

(UN)

INTEGRATE THE PRINCIPLES OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT INTO COUNTRY POLICIES AND PROGRAMS AND REVERSE THE LOSS OF ENVIRONMENTAL RESOURCES

#### 1 • Environmental resources:

- a. Project for Conservation and Sustainable Use of Brazilian Biological Diversity – Probio
- b. Program for Conservation and Recovery of Brazilian Biomes
- c. National Program for Protected Areas of Brazil
- d. Program for Prevention and Combating of Deforestation, Forest Burning and Forest Fires – FLORESCER
- e. National Forests Program – PNF
- f. Traditional Communities Program
- g. Program for Social and Environmental Development of Rural Family Production – Proambiente
- i. Sustainable Regional Development Plan for the Area of Influence of BR-163 Highway
- i. Probasias
- j. Program for Revitalization of River Basins in Situation of Vulnerability and Environmental Degradation
- k. National Action Program to Combat Desertification and Mitigate the Effects of Droughts - PAN/Brazil
- l. National Program for Air Quality Control - Pronar and Program of Control of Air Pollution by Motor Vehicles - Proconve
- m. Brazilian Program for Elimination of Production and Consumption of Ozone Depleting Substances - PBCO
- p. Environmental Education Program for Sustainable Societies
- q. National Training Program for Environmental Managers - PNC
- p. Social Tariff on Electricity
- q. Electricity for All Program
- r. National Program for Biodiesel Production and Use - PNPB
- s. Alternative Sources of Energy
- t. Energy Efficiency



# GOAL 7



# MDG 7 • ENSURE ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY

## MAIN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

### TARGET 10

(UN)

HALVE, BY 2015, THE PROPORTION OF PEOPLE WITHOUT SUSTAINABLE ACCESS TO SAFE DRINKING WATER AND BASIC SANITATION

#### 2 • Drinking water and basic sanitation:

- a. Sanitation for All Program
- b. Rural Sanitation Program
- c. Construction of Cisterns
- d. Water Supply and Urban Sanitation Services Program
- e. Sustainable Urban Drainage Program
- f. Urban Solid Waste Program
- g. Pro-Municipalities Program

## MAIN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT INITIATIVES

### TARGET 11

(UN)

HAVE ACHIEVED BY 2020 A SIGNIFICANT IMPROVEMENT IN THE LIVES OF AT LEAST 100 MILLION SLUM DWELLERS

#### 3 •Precarious Settlements:

- a. Low-income Housing Subsidy Program
- b. Residential Lease Program - PAR
- c. Associative Credit Letter and Individual Credit Letter Programs
- d. Expansion of funds earmarked to the Real Estate Market
- e. Low-income Housing Program
- f. Program for Upgrading, Land Tenure Regularization and Integration of Precarious Settlements
- g. Papel Passado Program (land Titling)

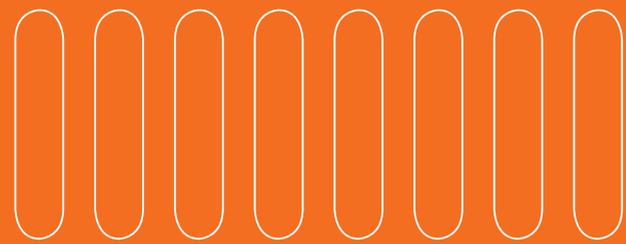


# GOAL 7





# DEVELOP A GLOBAL PARTNERSHIP FOR DEVELOPMENT



# 8

## MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOAL

**TARGET 12** • DEVELOP FURTHER AN OPEN, RULE-BASED, PREDICTABLE, NONDISCRIMINATORY TRADING AND FINANCIAL SYSTEM

**TARGET 13** • ADDRESS THE SPECIAL NEEDS OF THE LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES, INCLUDING TARIFF- AND QUOTA-FREE ACCESS FOR LEAST DEVELOPED COUNTRIES' EXPORTS, ENHANCED PROGRAM OF DEBT RELIEF FOR HEAVILY INDEBTED POOR COUNTRIES AND CANCELLATION OF OFFICIAL BILATERAL DEBT; AND MORE GENEROUS OFFICIAL DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE FOR COUNTRIES COMMITTED TO POVERTY REDUCTION

**TARGET 14** • ADDRESS THE SPECIAL NEEDS OF LANDLOCKED DEVELOPING COUNTRIES AND SMALL ISLAND DEVELOPING STATES

**TARGET 15** • DEAL COMPREHENSIVELY WITH THE DEBT PROBLEMS OF DEVELOPING COUNTRIES THROUGH NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL MEASURES IN ORDER TO MAKE DEBT SUSTAINABLE IN THE LONG TERM.

**TARGET 16** • IN COOPERATION WITH DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, DEVELOP AND IMPLEMENT STRATEGIES FOR DECENT AND PRODUCTIVE WORK FOR YOUTH.

**TARGET 17** • IN COOPERATION WITH PHARMACEUTICAL COMPANIES, PROVIDE ACCESS TO AFFORDABLE ESSENTIAL DRUGS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

**TARGET 18** • IN COOPERATION WITH THE PRIVATE SECTOR. MAKE AVAILABLE THE BENEFITS OF NEW TECHNOLOGIES, ESPECIALLY INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATIONS TECHNOLOGIES

# BRAZIL PURSUES SOUTH-SOUTH COOPERATION TO ACCELERATE DEVELOPMENT

The main idea underlying the eighth Millennium Development Goal is the establishment of a global cooperation network to strengthen efforts towards the MDGs. As pointed out in the previous reports, more than encouraging international cooperation, the goal includes the commitment undertaken by developed countries to provide technical and financial assistance to poor nations so that they can overcome structural constraints that hinder economic growth and the fight against poverty.

In this context, Brazil plays two different roles. First, a developing country with social, regional and economic inequalities, and asymmetries that need to be overcome. Second, as a leader in the generation of new knowledge and technologies in various sectors, which allows Brazil to provide support to other nations. The Brazilian government has been playing both roles on the one hand calling for greater contribution to development from rich countries, on the other collaborating with poor nations through technical, scientific and technological cooperation, participating in peace missions and providing assistance in calamitous situations.

Brazil is committed to the construction of a fairer and more equitable multilateral system, where the search for world peace and security and the promotion of development reinforce each other. This report presents the main initiatives related to the implementation of the eighth Millennium Goal carried out in the past two years, with emphasis on South-South cooperation.

## Country plays active role in UN agencies aimed at peace promotion

Brazil's performance in various international forums is aimed, mainly, at strengthening multilateralism and, in the United Nations, at advocating a reform that will enhance the organization's capacity to establish an international order based on the enforcement of international law and on social justice. Thus, Brazil supports a UN that promotes an integrated and comprehensive sustainable development, security, and human rights.

The country played a major role, for example, in the negotiations that resulted in the establishment of the UN Peacebuilding Commission. For years the Brazilian government had been calling for

the creation of a UN agency exclusively dedicated to monitoring post-conflict situations, when the peace process, still incipient, runs considerable risk of collapsing due to institutional weakness and precarious socioeconomic conditions of the country in question. Brazil also provided important inputs during its participation in the discussions that led to the institution of the UN Human Rights Council. Brazilian efforts were acknowledged, with the country being awarded a seat in these two agencies in their first years of operation.

Another example of these efforts for the promotion of international peace is the Brazilian participation in the United Nations Stabilization Mission in Haiti (Minustah). Brazil is the country that most contributes with troops (around 1.2 thousand) and holds the military command of the Mission.

In the diplomatic field, Brazil remains committed, with its partners of the Group of Four (G-4, partnership with Japan, Germany and India), in the discussions aimed at the Security Council reform without which no reform of the UN will be complete. The agency's expansion, with the inclusion of permanent seats for countries of all regions of the developing world, is a key component of the efforts to democratize international decision-making and to achieve more legitimate and representative multilateralism.

## Nations try to overcome inequalities and strengthen Mercosur

In the construction of this multilateralism, economic integration plays the role of decreasing tensions derived from the inequalities generated by globalization. The most urgent global need, in this sense, is the creation of mechanisms designed to foster consensus in international negotiations, thus contributing to the development of all regions.

One of Brazil's goals is to contribute to the integration of South America, as de-

terminated by its Constitution, through several initiatives and actions, especially in the last three decades.

In 2006, the Mercosur completed 15 years, consolidating important institutions and establishing mechanisms to support development. The Mercosur Parliament, established in December 2006, held its first session in May 2007 in Montevideo. The Permanent Review Court, established in 2004, is the highest echelon in charge of settling disputes among member states.

In both institutions, Brazil has been advocating measures to reduce asymmetries between member countries and stimulate greater integration among the productive chains that comprise the bloc. Among the initiatives in this area, one may point out the Fund for Structural Convergence and Institutional Strengthening of Mercosur (*see box 1*).

### Brazil and emerging countries join forces in negotiations

The emphasis of Brazilian diplomacy on building multilateral mechanisms is also demonstrated by Brazil's efforts in world trading and financial forums. An example is the country's performance in the Doha Round, of the World Trade Organization (WTO), which completed six years in 2007. Since the beginning of the negotiations, the country advocated the liberalization of agricultural trade and the introduction of development-related issues in the agenda, which should be part of the current round. Brazil also played a key role in establishing G-20 – an alliance among emerging countries that participate in the Doha Round.

The G-20 proposal for the Doha Round to be concluded in 2007 is aimed primarily at meeting the interests of developing countries, particularly regarding the agricultural sector. The group's main demand is for developed nations to eliminate subsidies to agricultural products exports and to lift customs barriers.

Brazil considers that the approval of this measure is crucial, since import restrictions and government subsidies to farmers in developed nations undermine food security and agricultural development in poor countries.

As for the service sector, the Brazilian government believes that negotiations have progressed satisfactorily, with the fulfillment of established mandates and deadlines. In recent years, the WTO approved important resolutions, such as the Hong Kong Ministerial Declaration of December 2005, which brought about two changes: it expanded access to the service market for developing countries under the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) and instituted a complementary mechanism to the Doha Round negotiations – the plurilateral approach.

In 2006, the Brazilian government approved the quota- and tariff-free entry of products from Least Developed Countries<sup>1</sup>. This type of initiative, recommended by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (Unctad) and applied by a large number of developed countries since the 1970's, aims at using international trade as an instrument to foster the development of poor countries.

As for intellectual property – another important theme in the current world trade negotiations – Brazil has been working alongside Argentina to establish the Agenda for Development in the World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO). The aim of this initiative is to include the development issue in international discussions on intellectual property.

The Agenda's proposal is directly linked to some of the targets in the eighth Millennium Goal, such as targets 17 and 18. Currently, the initiative is co-sponsored by 12 countries: South Africa, Bolivia, Cuba, Ecuador, Iran, Peru, Kenya, Dominican Republic, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uruguay and Venezuela.

*Brazilian government claims that import restrictions imposed by rich countries undermine food security in poor countries*

### Brazil reduces debts of developing countries by more than US\$ 1.25 billion

When developed UN member countries approved the Millennium Goals in 2000, they agreed to increase official development assistance to at least 0.7% of their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by 2015. Moreover, they pledged to reduce the external debt of heavily indebted poor countries.

Although not included in these commitments, Brazil has been helping heavily indebted poor nations to reduce their debts. The Brazilian government, as a creditor, renegotiated many outstanding debts with poor countries, particularly in Africa. In 2006, potential values reached approximately US\$ 400 million.

A special case was a bilateral agreement with Nigeria in December 2005. The negotiation resulted in the pardon of 67% of Nigeria's debt with Brazil, which was of approximately US\$ 162 million. With this, the government settled an issue pending since 1984.

In all, the discounts granted to developing countries in their debts with Brazil totaled US\$ 1.25 billion, of which more than US\$ 1 billion were for heavily indebted poor countries.

### Country exports more and improves external indebtedness indicators

For the Brazilian government, a key contribution of the country to the development of an open, rule-based, predictable, nondiscriminatory trading and financial system (as envisaged in Target 12 of the MDGs) is to stimulate its own growth and economic and social development, so that it can firmly enter the international market. After the difficulties faced between 2002 and 2003, the national economy has been growing steadily, albeit below the average of other countries in the region or the average of countries with similar income.

One of the main characteristics of this expansion was the improvement in the Brazilian balance of payments: there was a record increase of exports and imports and continuous entry of foreign investments in the country. These advances allowed the implementation of a net external indebtedness reduction policy, which had a favorable impact on the structure and composition of the public debt and increased the quality of Brazilian credit, pursuant to the main world indicators in this area.

For example, Brazil registered a reduction in the ratio between the external debt

## BOX 1 • Fund is aimed at promoting balance in Mercosur

Seeking to reduce structural imbalances and existing asymmetries among its members, Mercosur created, in June 2005, the Fund for Structural Convergence and Institutional Strengthening of the Mercosur (Focem). Its role is to finance projects aimed at reducing the main shortcomings of member nations, in order to ensure greater balance and, consequently, greater competitiveness within the bloc.

Focem relies on US\$ 100 million a year

to finance projects in the four member countries. Brazil has pledged to contribute with 70% of that total – the remaining funds come from Argentina (27%), Uruguay (2%) and Paraguay (1%). The funds are distributed in the opposite order: Paraguay receives most of the funds (48%). The second biggest beneficiary is Uruguay (32%). Projects in Argentina and Brazil can be funded to a limit of 10% of the Focem each.

From January to May 2007, Focem

approved 14 pilot projects, totaling more than US\$ 90 million. Among the proposals approved are Paraguayan actions in the areas of road recovery, biosafety and control of foods, and poverty. In Uruguay, projects to be funded include those for development of border areas, improvement of urban waste infrastructure, road recovery, and capacity building of the software and biotechnology sectors and their respective chains.

**TABLE 1 • Discounts granted by Brazil**  
Position on 31<sup>st</sup> December 2006 (US\$ millions)

<b>Heavily indebted poor countries</b>	<b>1.011,9</b>
Africa	815,2
Other countries	196,7
<b>Other developing countries</b>	<b>241,7</b>
Africa	116,6
Other countries	125,1
<b>Total</b>	<b>1.253,6</b>

Source: Ministry of Finance

service and exports and an increase in the relation between international reserves and the external debt. In 2000, the external debt burden accounted for about 95% of the Brazilian exports – that is, expenditures with interests and amortizations of the external debt due that year were equivalent to almost the total of the foreign currency obtained with exports. In 2006, this ratio fell to 41%.

In the ratio between international reserves and external debt, the advances were also significant. In 2000, international reserves represented approximately 15% of the external debits. In March 2007 this ratio reached 63%. Considering only the public external debt, in March 2007 the ratio was of 148% – that is, the Brazilian public sector's reserves are well above its external indebtedness.

Moreover, the volume of resources handled by Brazil in international trade (exports plus imports) exceeded the mark of US\$ 250 billion, with surpluses of roughly US\$ 45 billion. These results helped the country to be recognized as a less unstable market.

Another characteristic of the recent performance of the Brazilian economy was the expansion of the domestic market. Two policies deserve to be noted in this achievement: the expansion of consumer credit, especially through the consigned mechanism, and the income transfer programs.

The favorable external scenario and the maintenance of fiscal surpluses have allowed the reduction of the inflation rate, which is at its lowest since 1998, to around 4% a year. Controlled inflation enabled a gradual reduction of the domestic interest rate, thus allowing the expansion of credit and the development of productive investment financing operations in the domestic market.

The expansion of income transfer programs – that benefit approximately 11 million families and inject more than R\$ 9 billion (US\$ 4.7 billion) in the economy each year – increased poor people's purchasing power, contributing effectively to the reduction of poverty and extreme poverty, besides helping the growth of the domestic market. This effect was also influenced by the real increase of the minimum wage in recent years, with reflections on the labor market and on social security and assistance benefits.

The improvement of the macroeconomic and fiscal scenario enabled the expansion of public investment. Furthermore, the recent recovery of the economy's growth capacity increased the demand for infrastructure. In this context, to balance the need for more investment with the balance of public accounts, the Brazilian government instituted, in 2005, the Investment Pilot Project (PPI). This initiative brings together infrastructure projects under a different fiscal treatment – that is, their costs can be discounted

*Brazilian  
public sector  
accumulates  
international  
reserves above  
its external  
indebtedness*

*The Growth Acceleration Plan (PAC) includes highways, railroads, ports and research and development*

from the primary surplus target. The selection of each one took into account the expected economic-financial return. Highways, subways, railroads, ports, irrigation and research and development were contemplated. In the 2005-2006 period, investments in the implemented projects totaled R\$ 4.2 billion (US\$ 2.2 billion).

In 2007, the Growth Acceleration Program (PAC) was instituted, which incorporated most of the PPI projects and included new components, such as housing, sanitation, airports, waterways and electricity. One of the criteria used for the selection of projects to receive funds was the acceleration and conclusion of works already in progress, whose effects on economic growth tend to be faster and more effective.

PAC envisions investments in the order of R\$ 503.9 billion (US\$ 265.3 billion) between 2007 and 2010 – R\$ 67.8 billion (US\$ 35.7 billion) from the federal budget and R\$ 436.1 billion (US\$ 229.6 billion) from other sources (federal state-owned companies, counterpart funds, private sector and other financing). For 2007, estimated disbursement from the federal budget amounts to R\$ 15.8 billion (US\$ 8.3 billion), of which R\$ 11.3 billion (US\$ 5.9 billion) under the PPI criteria, which can be deducted from the fiscal target.

**Reform of the IMF and the World Bank can help curb asymmetries**

Besides trying to promote improvements internally, Brazil is engaged in the debate on international economic conditions. To this end, it continues to participate actively in discussions on the reform of multilateral financial institutions. The aim of Brazil in these forums is to implement measures that help decrease the instability of international markets and reduce power asymmetries in the agencies that developing countries are part of.

One of the most important forums in this area is the financial G-20<sup>2</sup>. Composed of the Ministers of Finance and Presi-

dents of the central banks of developed and developing countries, this group discusses subjects related to the stability of the global economy. In 2008, Brazil will chair the group, which means that the Minister of Finance and the president of the Central Bank of Brazil will be in charge of defining the group's agenda and drafting documents that will provide the basis for the discussions.

These attributions represent an opportunity for Brazil to place on the agenda issues that hinder the progress of developing countries. The economic dimension of the group gives an idea of its influencing power: its members represent, globally, 90% of the GDP, 80% of trade and two-thirds of the population.

**Brazilian fight against hunger grows and stimulates projects in other areas**

Brazil's international performance has also been marked by the emphasis on achieving the MDGs, with a focus on fighting hunger and poverty. This effort is based both on the Federal Constitution and on the personal commitment of the President of the Republic.

Seeking to draw the world's attention to these problems, the Brazilian government launched, in 2004, the Action against Hunger and Poverty. The first outcome of this initiative was the introduction of the fight against hunger and poverty in the international agenda, until then marked by a concern with security issues.

The actions to fight hunger and poverty advocated by the Brazilian government include the establishment of innovative financing mechanisms. To disseminate the use of these instruments, Brazil, France, Chile and Spain created the Technical Group on Innovative Financial Mechanisms, which also includes representatives from the UN Secretariat, from Germany and Algeria. The initiative is aimed at continuing the Action against Hunger and Poverty, increasing political support and improving projects' technical aspects.

However, the Action against Hunger and Poverty and the innovative financing mechanisms provided by it are not intended to replace Official Development Assistance, which must be increased, nor diminish the importance of measures towards a fairer and more equitable trade system and a financial system more favorable to developing countries.

One of its outcomes was the creation of the International Drug Purchase Facility Against Aids, Malaria and Tuberculosis (Unitaid). Launched by Brazil, France, United Kingdom, Norway and Chile in September 2006, it is financed with resources from a tax on airline tickets, already charged in countries such as France and Chile.

Unitaid, which is linked to the World Health Organization (OMS), has concentrated its efforts on projects to facilitate access to drugs against the three diseases that most affect developing countries. Its initiatives range from those targeted at price reduction and diversification of drugs on the market to incentives to the enforcement of measures that allow greater flexibility in intellectual property matters – such as those provided for under the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS), of the World Trade Organization.

Other responsibilities of Unitaid include drug distribution, quality control and purchase (which should be carried out in large scale in the long run). To this end, the facility has the support of the United Nations Children's Fund (Unicef), the United Nations Program on HIV/Aids (Unaids), the Clinton Foundation, and the Global Fund to Fight Aids, Malaria and Tuberculosis.

Brazil has been contributing with the Unitaid through budget funds amounting to the equivalent of what would be collected annually with the taxation of international airline tickets in the country. Currently, the government is studying a more appropriate way to contribute permanently.

The support to Unitaid was significantly strengthened with the adhesion of 18 African countries in February 2007. After the 24th Summit of African Heads of State, the initiative gained the support of South Africa, Benin, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Congo, Ivory Coast, Gabon, Liberia, Madagascar, Mali, Morocco, Mauritius Islands, Namibia, Niger, Central African Republic, St. Thomas and Prince, Senegal and Togo.

### International partnership privileges knowledge transfer

The Brazilian government believes that international technical cooperation should contribute to sustainable growth and social development. For that, collaboration with other developing nations is an instrument that, besides allowing increased exchange, should seek to generate, use and disseminate technical knowledge, qualify human resources and strengthen institutions in beneficiary countries (*see, in the attached CD, the Federal Government's international technical cooperation projects*).

Contrary to the more common modalities of collaboration, South-South technical cooperation adds a range of elements and advantages. These particularities are in line with the positions defended by in international forums regarding development. In these forums, Brazilian diplomacy supports initiatives that ensure the ownership of expertise in international cooperation programs to developing countries. The idea is that international cooperation initiatives should build stakeholders' capacity in beneficiary nations and allow them to manage and absorb the projects' outcomes. This is an important aspect, because it transfers knowledge and enables beneficiary populations to use their local capacity.

The focus of the cooperation provided by Brazil is the transfer of knowledge and experiences through training, consultancy, institutional capacity building and implementation of pilot projects. Thus, two major goals are met: improve

*Brazil contributes to UN initiative that distributes drugs for Aids, malaria and tuberculosis treatment*

living conditions where support is provided and generate technical capacity that allows ownership of cooperation outcomes. It should be noted that the technical cooperation provided by the Brazilian government does not have a patronizing character, nor is it commercial or for profit.

Brazilian cooperation projects include a wide range of areas. Technical support initiatives include employment and income generation (establishment of professional training centers), improvement of public health (distribution of vaccines and drugs and support to STD/Aids prevention and treatment programs), food security projects (assistance in family farming and agricultural research), public administration (assistance in public policy design and electronic governance), social development, environment (forest management, combating forest fires), transport, urban planning, civil defense, metrology, sports, electoral process and renewable energy.

Brazil has a large amount of technical knowledge that can be used by countries lacking in resources and training. The Government has been using this expertise to help with problems common to various developing countries, through projects that take local realities into consideration. Moreover, it is the beneficiaries of Brazilian cooperation that control the initiatives and define priorities in project implementation. Therefore, the legitimacy and effective ownership of knowledge on the part of beneficiary nations are assured.

#### Technical cooperation in 2007 includes 184 projects and missions

Brazilian technical cooperation projects involve two types of investment. One is the mobilization of experts who work in public institutions or in institutions linked to the government and the provision of goods and equipment necessary to meet the demands of developing countries. Although it does not have a specific monetary value, this cooperation component entails

investments in technological infrastructure and human resources. By transferring technical expertise and sharing inputs free of charge, the Brazilian government allows its partners to save resources. It is estimated that, for every US\$ 1 of direct investment in South-South cooperation, the value of the expertise transferred and of human resources mobilized by Brazilian institutions is 15 times higher. The second type of investment is the funding of the operational costs for project implementation.

Brazil has expanded its technical cooperation programs with South-American countries, Portuguese-speaking African countries and other countries, such as East Timor and Haiti. This effort to intensify South-South cooperation was translated mainly into the approval of bilateral agreements and establishment of triangular partnerships that gather developing countries, donor countries and international organizations, such as the UN.

Brazil's technical cooperation with developing countries envisages 184 projects and activities underway in 2007. In 2006, 68 agreements were signed in various areas.

As part of the efforts of regional integration and cross-border development, the first line of action of this cooperation is South America. In the region, attention should be drawn to the projects developed with Bolivia and the initiatives that involve Mercosur member countries and the Amazon Cooperation Treaty.

In Central America and the Caribbean, the main actions include exchange of experiences on income transfer programs, professional training and civil defense. Another sector where technical cooperation is promising is that of biofuels, an area where Brazil is emerging as a technological leader (*see box 2*). Moreover, the most significant regional initiatives are the ones devised to promote triangular partnerships, involving Brazil, international organizations and bilateral agencies.

*Brazilian international cooperation projects range from income generation to environment and electoral process*

In the specific case of Haiti, Brazilian cooperation is more intense. Since 2004, Brazil has been leading stabilization efforts in the country. These actions involve sending troops and equipment, organization of international forums to collect funds for recovery, among other initiatives. Other Brazilian cooperation actions also take place, including triangular cooperation, which involves international organizations, other developing countries and donor countries agencies.

Regarding Brazilian cooperation with Africa, one initiative is the establishment of a regional office of the Brazilian Agricultural Research Company (Embrapa) in Ghana. These cooperation efforts are gaining recognition, and recently Brazil received proposals from countries in Europe and North America to work in Africa on the development of the biofuel sector.

In Asia, the focus of the Brazilian technical cooperation continues to be Portuguese-speaking East Timor, which is facing stabilization problems. Brazilian projects include a mission comprised of magistrates to support the reorganization and strengthening of East Timor's judiciary system. In the Middle East, Brazil participated in the International Conference to Support the Reconstruction of Lebanon.

At the interregional and regional levels, Brazil has been supporting the promotion of technical cooperation in summits gathering South America and Arab countries and South America and Africa. The Brazilian government also participates in discussions on the cooperation agendas of the Commission of Portuguese Speaking Countries (CPLP), Economic System for Latin America and the Caribbean (SELA), G-15 (group composed of Latin American, African and Asian countries), Organization of American States (OAS), and the Ibero-American Conference, as well as of United Nations agencies.

The expansion of Brazilian South-South technical cooperation in bilateral, regional

and multilateral partnerships demonstrates Brazil's commitment to promote exchange of experiences and knowledge as a basis for sustained socioeconomic development. In the last five years, the Brazilian government negotiated and approved 380 different South-South technical cooperation initiatives. The country believes it is effectively contributing towards the fulfillment of the Millennium Goals.

In the area of sexually transmitted diseases, Brazilian technical cooperation has shared with African and Latin American countries its experience in the planning of prevention campaigns and assistance to people living with HIV/Aids. The International Center for Technical Cooperation on HIV/Aids, a joint initiative of the Brazilian government and UNAIDS, is developing an increasing number of cooperation projects with countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, Africa and Asia.

An example is Rede Laços Sul-Sul (South-South Solidarity Ties Network), with the participation of Unicef. This Network strengthens national policies to fight Aids, including expansion of free-of-charge access to antiretroviral drugs and implementation of activities aimed at the reduction of mother-to-child transmission. The initiative includes seven countries, in addition to Brazil: Bolivia, Cape Verde, East Timor, Guinea-Bissau, Nicaragua, Paraguay and St. Thomas and Prince.

As for scientific and technological cooperation, Brazil created two programs to support science development with the other Southern countries: the South American Program for the Support of Cooperation Activities in Science and Technology (Prosul), established in 2001, and the Program for Thematic Cooperation in Science and Technology Matters (ProÁfrica), initiated in 2004. Both are aimed at supporting, not conditional to counterpart funds, projects involving research visits and organization of events, such as study missions, visits by experts or technical staff, seminars, and meet-

*In Central America and the Caribbean, main actions are aimed at exchange of experiences on cash transfer programs*

## BOX 2 • Brazil leads debates on biofuels

World economic expansion faces the challenge of meeting the increasing demand for energy in a sustainable manner, with the least possible impact on the environment and reducing global warming. In this context, the efforts to change the current energy matrix and to prioritize renewable sources become even more important.

With long experience in the area of renewable fuels, Brazil has been contributing to the international debate on the subject. The Brazilian government advocates that, in addition to being a clean energy source, biofuels have great potential to boost economic and social development, particularly in poor countries. The Brazil advocates that this type of fuel not only helps decrease greenhouse gas emissions, but also promotes social inclusion.

The Brazilian strategy in the area of biofuels took into account concerns over energy safety and sustainability, factors that have stimulated various countries to seek alternatives to fossil fuels, trying to implement initiatives to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. In the case of Brazil, this strategy encompasses three scales: global, regional

and bilateral.

On the global scale, Brazilian initiatives are aimed at democratizing the world's energy production, with the reduction of inequalities between consumer and producer nations. Currently, energy production is concentrated in about 15 countries, while at least 120 countries would be able to produce biofuels. With an eye on this potential, Brazil has been advocating the international adoption of standards and norms that allow the establishment of a global market for these products. The first step was taken in March 2007, when the largest biofuel producers and consumers created the International Biofuels Forum in New York, U.S.A..

Moreover, it is Brazil's aim to encourage the development of scientific studies and technological innovations to ensure that production is sustainable in the long run. The major concern of some analysts is that food crops may be jeopardized, or that deforestation may increase. The recent Brazilian experience, however, shows that biofuels do not pose a threat: their production grew alongside that of foods and the pace of deforestation is decreasing.

At the regional level, Brazil has encouraged the energy integration of South America through support to the diversification of the energy matrices and incentive to renewable sources. This work was made formal through a Mercosur memorandum of understanding, in which member countries expand cooperation in the energy sector. The increased integration among production and commercialization chains of ethanol and biodiesel – which includes aspects of regulation and inspection – is intended to take advantage of the important competitive advantages of South American countries in the field of biofuels.

On the bilateral scale, Brazil has also favored technical cooperation initiatives – including research of alternative sources to biofuels – and promotion of scientific and academic exchange. The main Brazilian partners in these initiatives are Paraguay, Uruguay, Chile, Ecuador and Italy, in addition to the Dialogue Forum of India, Brazil and South Africa (IBSA). The agreement with the United States, on cooperation projects in other countries for development of biofuels, should also be noted.

ings for preparation of research papers. In 2006, Prosul approved 61 projects, totaling approximately US\$ 1.2 million, and ProÁfrica financed the implementation of 22 projects, with an investment of US\$ 500 thousand.

### Country invests to increase the provision of free-of-charge drugs

Target 17 of the MDGs establishes that countries should join pharmaceutical companies to ensure supply of affordable essential drugs. Brazil has been developing several initiatives in this area. In recent years, the government invested in

the construction of laboratories and the acquisition of drugs for free-of-charge distribution. It also funded projects for research and development of new technologies to expand supply.

Between 2002 and 2006, the country multiplied by four the per capita expenditure on the Basic Pharmacy – a branch of the Unified Health System (SUS) charged with the free distribution of drugs. Moreover, the Popular Pharmacies were created, providing a range of essential drugs at prices up to 90% below market prices. Popular Pharmacies can have their own premises or

operate in private establishments certified by the government.

Brazil has also encouraged drug manufacturing. Attention should be drawn to the purchase of a new drug production unit of the Oswaldo Cruz Foundation (Fiocruz). The plant's production capacity is about 10 billion units of drugs a year. Another initiative was the creation of Hemobrás, a company that will initiate its activities in 2010 and should make the country self-sufficient in the production of blood derivatives (substances derived from human plasma and serum). Currently, most of these drugs are imported. These investments in infrastructure are accompanied by investments in the development of new technologies, a segment where Brazil has established partnerships with Argentina, Cuba and Israel.

This effort to guarantee drug supply is evidenced by the Brazilian policy for the treatment of people living with HIV. Since 1996, Law n. 9.313 determines that the Government must distribute, free-of-charge, and in a universal manner, the drugs used to treat AIDS patients. This initiative, recognized as an example by various international organizations, has contributed to stabilize the disease's mortality rates (*see chapter 6*).

The guarantee of free-of-charge access to HIV treatment has a high cost for Brazil. The purchase of new patented drugs places a heavy burden on the budget for acquisition of antiretroviral drugs and undermines the sustainability of the national response to Aids. Just in 2007, for example, the universal and free-of-charge access for the 200 thousand patients should involve expenditures on drugs of around R\$ 987 million (US\$ 520 million) – of which 80% are for imported drugs.

Brazil has been negotiating a price reduction with pharmaceutical companies, for drugs used in the treatment of Aids. The aim is to continue to ensure universal and free-of-charge access, with the available resources. These negotiations, how-

ever, do not always result in agreement. That is what happened with the patent-holder of Efavirenz, the main imported antiretroviral used in the composition of medicines used by approximately 75 thousand of the 200 thousand patients in antiretroviral therapy. After several meetings carried out since 2006, which did not result in agreement, the Brazilian government issued a compulsory license for the drug's patents in May 2007, on the basis of public interest. This measure is foreseen both in the Brazilian legislation and in international agreements on the subject, in particular the TRIPS Agreement.

**Brazil has 140 million telephone lines and 32 million internet users**

Brazil is making efforts to increase the population's access and use of telecommunications and new information technologies. In 2006, there were more than 100 million mobile phone devices, more than double the total registered in 2003. This number places Brazil among the top five mobile telephone markets in the world, with a ratio of 53 mobile phones to every 100 inhabitants. In fixed telephone, with new technologies, the number of lines remained around 40 million. With this, the total density of Brazilian telephones reached 74 devices (mobile plus fixed) to every 100 inhabitants, a ratio close to that observed in developed countries such as France, Japan and United States in 2005.

As for Internet access, the country still has a long way to go. In 2005, there were approximately 9.8 million computers in private households in Brazil, according to the National Household Sample Survey (Pnad). The number of internet users was approximately 32.1 million, more than half located in the Southeast (55%). The region with the second highest number of people with Internet access is the South (18%), followed by the Northeast (16%), Mid-West (8%) and North (4%). This distribution reflects the regional inequalities, mainly related to income.

*Brazil negotiates with the pharmaceutical sector a reduction in the price of drugs used to treat AIDS, which cost R\$ 987 million (US\$ 520 million) a year*

The Brazilian government is currently promoting three digital inclusion initiatives: the Casa Brasil, the Computador para Todos (Computers for All) and the National Program of Information Technology in Education (ProInfo).

The Casa Brasil project intends to establish seven thousand tele-centers in areas with low Municipal Human Development Index (IDH-M), an adaptation of the HDI to Brazilian regional indicators. For that, the Federal Government is seeking to build partnerships with local governments and civil society. The initiative envisions each tele-center with 10 to 20 computers equipped with free software and broad-band Internet connection.

The Computador para Todos subsidizes the production and sale of PCs with Internet access. The incentive is provided in two ways: tax exemption for the industry, and creation of specific credit lines in the retail market. The computers, sold at a maximum price of R\$ 1,200 (US\$ 630) for desktops and R\$ 1,800 (US\$ 950) for laptops, must use free software and have a minimum configuration determined by the initiative. Since the beginning of the program in September 2005, 380 thousand PCs have been sold. The ProInfo equips elementary and secondary public schools with information and communication technologies. Promoted in partnership with state and municipal governments, the initiative allows students to learn IT skills at school.

The actions in this area are not restricted to the Federal Government. Various projects carried out by local governments and civil society have promoted progress in the sector. An example is the Digital Inclusion Map in Brazil, in its conclusion stage. Prepared by the Brazilian Institute for Information in Science and Technology (IBICT), the map seeks to identify and quantify digital inclusion spots in the domestic territory.

There are also digital inclusion projects promoted by the country abroad. A Brazilian cooperation initiative established

tele-centers in seven countries: Angola, Cape Verde, St. Thomas and Prince, East Timor, Cuba, Haiti and Paraguay.

Brazil advocates that information and communication technologies are not an end in themselves, and their dissemination cannot be dissociated from a discussion on how they should be used. In this sense, the country participates in the international debate on the information society in partnership with developing nations, particularly with those in our region, India and South Africa. The World Summit on the Information Society was summoned by the UN seeking to help in the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals, through information and communication technologies, in an inclusive manner, focusing on individuals and with a focus on development. In this context, upon the Summit's initiative, the Internet Governance Forum (IGF) was created in 2005, as a multisectoral mechanism designed to support, alongside other initiatives, the construction of a governance model for a multilateral, transparent and democratic Internet. Brazil will host the second IGF meeting in Rio de Janeiro, from the 12 to 15 November 2007.

<sup>1</sup> The 50 countries considered least developed, according to criteria of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (Unctad).

<sup>2</sup> G-20 (Group of 20) is composed of ministers of Finance and presidents of central banks of 19 countries: South Africa, Germany, Saudi Arabia, Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, South Korea, United States, France, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Mexico, United Kingdom, Russia and Turkey. The European Union is also a member of the group, represented by the presidency of the European Council and by the European Central Bank. In addition to member countries, meetings are attended by the director-manager of International Monetary Fund and the president of the World Bank, as well as the directors of the International Monetary and Financial Committee and the Development Committee.

*Access to land lines and mobile telephones is close to the levels of countries such as Japan and United States*







